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Rare Book

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To: The  
Modern



Struggle of  
man.

ಗ್ರಂಥಾಲಯ

A: F. G. Pearce

ಕನ್ನಡ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯ, ಹಂಪಿ

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# THE STRUGGLE OF MODERN MAN

*A Background of World History*

by **F. G. PEARCE**





CHINA

INDIA

THE MIDDLE E

1950

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ಕನ್ನಡ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯ, ಹಂಪಿ  
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		} AKBAR'S REIGN ←	
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1350	CHINA UNDER THE MONGOL KINGS	VIJAYANAGAR FOUNDED ALAUDDIN CAPTURED CHITORGARH	
	KUBLAI KHAN ←		
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EASTERN—EUROPE—WESTERN		AMERICA	
<p>RUSSIA</p> <p>REVOLUTION</p>	<p>WAR</p> <p>MUSSOLINI HITLER CHURCHILL</p> <p>THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS</p> <p>WAR</p> <p>MARCONI THE AEROPLANE INVENTED</p> <p>FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR</p> <p>DARWIN</p> <p>LIVINGSTONE THE MOTOR CAR</p> <p>LISTER</p>	<p>SAN FRANCISCO CONFERENCE</p> <p>ROOSEVELT</p> <p>WILSON</p>	1950
	<p>REVOLUTIONS IN EUROPE</p> <p>BATTLE OF WATERLOO</p> <p>NAPOLEON'S RETREAT FROM MOSCOW</p> <p>SEVEN—YEARS—WAR—BETWEEN—FRENCH—AND—BRITISH</p> <p>WILLIAM PITT</p>	<p>WASHINGTON</p> <p>DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE (1776)</p> <p>CAPTAIN COOK (PACIFIC OCEAN)</p> <p>WOLFE CAPTURED QUEBEC</p>	1850
<p>CATHERINE THE GREAT</p> <p>PETER THE GREAT</p>	<p>PARLIAMENT BECAME SUPREME</p> <p>SIR ISAAC NEWTON</p> <p>HARVEY (CIRCULATION OF BLOOD)</p> <p>LOUIS XIV</p> <p>CROMWELL</p> <p>CHARLES I EXECUTED</p>	<p>1750</p> <p><i>ಮೈ. ಬಕ್ಕನಿ ರೆಬರಾ</i> <i>ನಿವೃತ್ತ ಪ್ರಾಧ್ಯಾಪಕರ</i> <i>ಕೆ.ನಿ ಸಿ.ನಿ ಇವರ ಮೊ</i></p>	1650
	<p>PILGRIM FATHERS FOUNDED NEW ENGLAND</p> <p>SHAKESPEARE</p> <p>EAST INDIA COMPANIES</p> <p>FOUNDED</p> <p>SPANISH ARMADA DEFEATED</p> <p>ST IGNATIUS OF LOYOLA</p>	<p>VIRGINIA FOUNDED BY RALEIGH (1583)</p>	1550
<p>VIENNA</p> <p>RUSSIA FREED FROM MONGOL RULE</p>	<p>MAGELLAN</p> <p>VASCO DA GAMA</p> <p>LEONARDO DA VINCI</p>	<p>PIZARRO IN PERU</p> <p>LUTHER</p> <p>CORTEZ IN MEXICO</p>	1450
	<p>CAPTURED CONSTANTINOPLE (1453)</p> <p>PRINTING IN EUROPE</p> <p>HUSS</p> <p>WYCLIFFE</p>	<p>COLUMBUS DISCOVERS W. INDIES</p>	1350
	<p>MARCO POLO</p> <p>ROGER BACON</p>		1250





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ವಿದ್ಯಾರಣ್ಯ.



*M. Gubrayani  
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# The STRUGGLE of MODERN MAN

*A Background of World History  
with special reference to India, Pakistan and Ceylon*

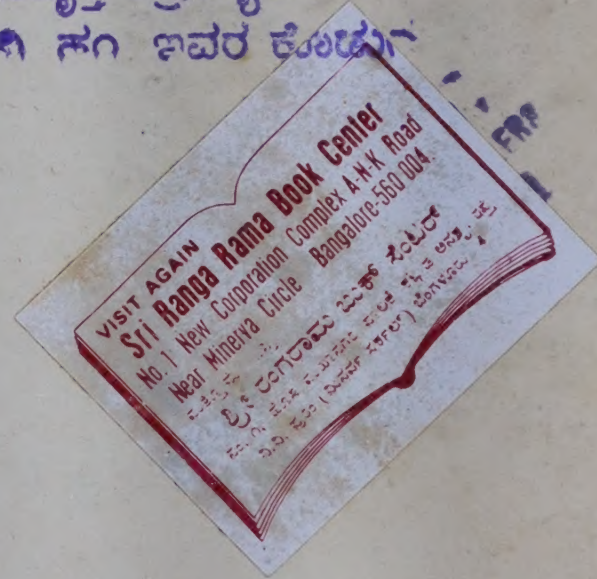
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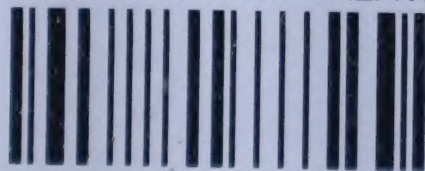
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## Preface

THERE are many good books on world history today, and some are world-famous, such as H. G. Wells' *Outline of History*, Jawaharlal Nehru's *Glimpses of World History*, and Hendrick Van Loon's *The Story of Mankind*. But nearly all such books are much too difficult for the average child of High School age in India, Pakistan and Ceylon. For children whose mother-tongue is not English it is essential that the language of an English book should be simple and straightforward and that the quantity of information presented should not be excessive. Unfortunately, few people who possess deep knowledge of a subject have also the ability to give it out in language simple enough for children to understand and enjoy. Scholars often cannot bear to omit facts which to them are valuable, but which only bewilder the child's mind by obscuring essentials in over-abundant details. That is the excuse for an amateur like myself daring to enter the field. Remembering the boring history lessons of my own school days, I have tried to make a skeleton of world-history with the principal bones only, and yet impart to it a lively appearance with the flesh of simple language and the blood of mainly biographical narrative.

A word concerning what has been included and what has not been included here. In concentrating the story of world events into so small a compass the main problem is what NOT to put in. In making my choice I have been guided, first, by the consideration that this book is primarily for boys and girls of India, Pakistan and Ceylon. I have therefore made a point of including reference to matters which have a special bearing on the history of those countries, or which are likely to be of special interest to their students. I have also included reference to events and characters of the East having a direct bearing on events in other parts of the world. Thus, contact with the Chinese, resulting in the introduction of the mariners' compass to Europe, led to the discoveries of new sea-routes and continents previously



unknown to people of the West; the disunity of India after the deaths of Shivaji and Aurungzeb opened the way for European aggression; the struggle for trade and empire between rival European powers led to successive invasions of Ceylon's coastal regions; and so on.

An attempt has been made, so far as is possible in so elementary a book, to indicate problems still to be solved in 'the struggle of modern man'. The Key-Questions and Exercises will, it is hoped, stimulate thought as to how some of those problems may be solved some day. The Key-Questions will also be found useful for revision of the subject-matter, and as a help to those who read the book for pleasure or for private study.

An additional argument in favour of using such a book as this in the Senior Basic or Junior Secondary school is that, if education cannot be continued beyond that stage, the child will leave school with at least some idea of how the story of civilization in his own country is linked up with that of mankind as a whole. Such a background of world history is valuable, I think, for any intelligent person: it is *essential* for the citizens of new democracies built on the foundations of great bygone civilizations whose noble traditions are not yet wholly extinct.

In the writing of a book of this kind, containing so much factual information, small inaccuracies are liable to remain even after very careful revision. I should very much appreciate the pointing-out of such inaccuracies by fellow-students and teachers, so that corrections may be made in future editions, with due acknowledgement.

*Rishi Valley*  
*South India*  
*February 1951* }

F. G. P.



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## Note on Vocabulary

THIS book is written within the limits of a vocabulary of 1500 words on which the Publisher has based a number of well-known series of English readers for bilingual schools in India and other countries. All words in this vocabulary are likely to be familiar to those who have been following for about three years any efficient English course based on the principles of word-frequency and common straight-forward usage. Extra words, numbering about 500, not included in the vocabulary of 1500, which have had to be used, are listed in the Glossary at the end of the book, where they are explained in terms of the limited vocabulary. Usages which are not the common ones have been separately listed. The total number of words employed in the book amounts to less than 2000.



# I

## *Man's Struggle to be Civilized*

### SECTION 1: WHAT IS 'CIVILIZATION' ?

[Key-Question 1: *What things help to make us civilized?*]

§ 1. Perhaps you will be surprised to read the title of this chapter. Is man struggling to be civilized? Are we not already civilized?

To answer these questions we must know what is meant by 'civilization'. What does it mean to be civilized? Does it mean having railway-trains and motor-cars to ride in, or radio-sets and telephones to send messages? There were no such things in India and Ceylon in ancient times and would you therefore say that the Indian and Sinhalese people of those times were not civilized?

Does civilization mean the manufacture of all kinds of articles, getting wealth through trade, being able to buy fine clothes and live in grand houses? Mahatma Gandhi did not do any of these things: he wore only the simplest hand-made clothes, and lived in a hut. Was he not civilized?

Then what does it mean to be civilized? There is a little book, written by a modern philosopher named Professor Joad, called *The Story of Civilization*.<sup>1</sup> Mr Joad tells us that some of the things which help us to become civilized are: *making beautiful things; thinking freely; thinking new things; and keeping the rules for living together.*

Just think for a moment of people you know. Are they doing all those things? Are we ourselves doing all those things?

Are we 'making beautiful things'? Yes: many such things are made in our country—articles of carved wood, ivory, silver and brass, beautiful saris, fine houses and public buildings. But look at the ugly things we make too. Think of our crowded towns, our untidy bazaars, our dirty slums and villages.

---

<sup>1</sup> Published by A. & C. Black Ltd.



Are we 'thinking freely'? This means not only thinking but also saying and writing what we think. We are not completely free, but there are not many things that we are not allowed to say in public or in print. We can also listen freely to any foreign radio-station. In Hitler's Germany, if people were caught doing that, they were sent to prison.

Are we 'thinking new things'? This means trying to get more knowledge, finding out new things about the earth and the wonders it contains, about plants and animals, about Man. Surely in this we can certainly say that modern men *are* civilized. There has never been a time when so many wonderful new discoveries were made. But we must admit that many of us go on thinking old things which have been proved untrue. There are people who still think that those born in so-called 'lower castes' are of less value than those born in so-called 'higher castes' or 'upper classes' of society. There are people in America who still think of negroes in that way: there are people in South Africa who have the same opinion about Indians, and therefore do not treat them as equals. There are people who think that, because they have a lot of money or come from a noble family, they have the right to make poorer people work for them like slaves. Is that a civilized way to behave?

Are we 'keeping the rules for living together'? What are those 'rules'? They are the laws of the country, and the laws of good behaviour between human beings. In an uncivilized country, if a man steals the property of another man, the man whose things have been stolen takes revenge by going to the house of the robber and beating him or taking away something of his. If one man murders another in an uncivilized country, the dead man's relatives think it their first duty to kill a member of the murderer's family. We have learned to settle such quarrels in a better way in civilized countries. The cause of the quarrel or robbery or murder is discussed in full before a judge. When the court (that is the judge or judges) has heard all the evidence and all the discussion of the lawyers on both sides, the judgement is given by the court and both sides must accept it. That is a much more peaceful way



of deciding quarrels; and a much juster one than letting the enemies fight, which only proves which of them is stronger in body, and not which of them is right! Yet some people still try to settle their quarrels by fighting. Is that a civilized way to behave?

[Key-Question 2: *How does the bad behaviour of people in one country now make a difference to all of us?*]

§ 2. Though we have learned to be more civilized about quarrels between persons, we have not yet learned to be equally civilized about quarrels between nations. Do nations settle their quarrels with the help of a judge? Sometimes they do so.<sup>1</sup> That was the object of having a *League of Nations*.<sup>2</sup> But sometimes they do not agree to let a judge decide. Then the only way to decide is by war. Is that a civilized way?

So you see that we are still only learning to behave in a civilized way, as nations. We have not yet succeeded. But there is hope; for, after a terrible and destructive war, more and more people feel determined to find a way of settling the quarrels of nations as the quarrels of persons are settled. That was the purpose of the great meeting at San Francisco in April 1945 at the end of the World War against Germany.

But there are also many small ways in which we show that we are not fully civilized in regard to 'keeping the rules'. For example, we are only just beginning to learn to stand in a 'queue', so that each may take his turn in buying a railway-ticket, getting into a bus, or whatever it is that all want to do. If everyone tries to push into the first place, it is more difficult and unpleasant for everyone, especially for the weakest ones. So it is certainly a sign of civilization when people have learned willingly to obey such rules.

From all this I hope you now have some idea of what is meant by 'being civilized'. And you will see that no nation is yet perfectly civilized. In every country there are good men and women who

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<sup>1</sup> India and Pakistan agreed to settle their disagreements in that way when their Prime Ministers met at Delhi in April 1950.

<sup>2</sup> See § 66.



behave in a truly civilized way. But there are still many who do not yet understand why they should behave in that way and who behave in a selfish way, not caring whether it harms other people or not. Sad to say, the less civilized people are still more than the civilized ones. And that is why the lives of human beings in all countries are full of suffering, much of which could be prevented if more people behaved in a civilized way.

Now, I think, you will understand why I have called this book *The Struggle of Modern Man*. We are all struggling to learn how to be more civilized. None of us is perfect. And every uncivilized thing that we do helps to bring suffering to our nation and to the whole world. On the other hand, every civilized thought that we think, every beautiful thing we help to make, every new discovery, every noble deed, helps to bring nearer the time when the world will *really* be civilized.

A few hundred years ago, people living in different countries—even people living in distant parts of the same country—could behave badly without doing much harm to people in other countries or other parts of their own country. If there was a cruel king in one of the European countries, it did not much matter to India or China. But it is no longer so. The 'new thinking' (which we call 'scientific invention') has joined the whole world together. The ideas of a man such as Edison, living on the other side of the world, have made a great difference to us (see Section 40). The ideas of some men in Germany and Japan set the whole world at war (see Sections 43, 48 and 49). A famine in Bengal made it necessary for wheat to be sent from Australia. As a famous American said, we live in *One World*, and not in many little separate worlds as in olden times.

Now we shall begin to study *how* this has happened. It is good to know and understand it, because, by observing the mistakes men have made in the past, we can avoid making them again. And, by studying the 'civilized' things that men have done, we can learn to increase and spread civilization. That is one of the uses of the study of History.

## EXERCISES

1. Make a list of some beautiful things made in your country, and another list of some of the ugly things men have made.
2. Give the names of some Indian scientists and mention what they discovered, if you can. Ask your science teacher if necessary.
3. Mention some of the 'ideas which have been proved untrue'.
4. Mention some of the 'rules for living together'.

## SECTION 2 : BEFORE CIVILIZATION BEGAN

[Key-Question 3 : *In what ways is man different from other animals ?*]

§ 3. We all like to hear stories of the good and great men and women of our own land. But it is not enough to know only the history of our own country. We have come to be what we now are through the thoughts and acts of millions of people. Some of those people came from far-off lands, and without them our way of thinking and of living today would be very different from what it is. Perhaps it would be better in certain ways, perhaps worse. To understand our present existence we must study the development of Man from the earliest times in different parts of the earth. In this book we shall do that in the shortest space possible.

Man has developed more quickly than any other animal, because his brain is larger and he is able to use it better for learning. He makes many mistakes, which cause pain to himself and others, but he is slowly learning to see his mistakes and to understand how he came to make them. In about 500,000 years, since the beginning of his existence on the earth, Man has made many great and useful discoveries, such as no other animal has ever made.

Scientists tell us that the earth has been spinning round and round the sun for at least 2,000,000,000 (two thousand million) years. Man has existed on the earth for hardly more than  $\frac{1}{4,000}$ th (one four-thousandth) part of that time. If a road from Cape Comorin to the northernmost point of Kashmir represents the period of the existence of our globe, the last half-mile of it would represent the whole existence of Man !

For perhaps two-thirds of the 2,000,000,000 years there was not even a sign of life upon the earth. Then, *about 700,000,000 years*

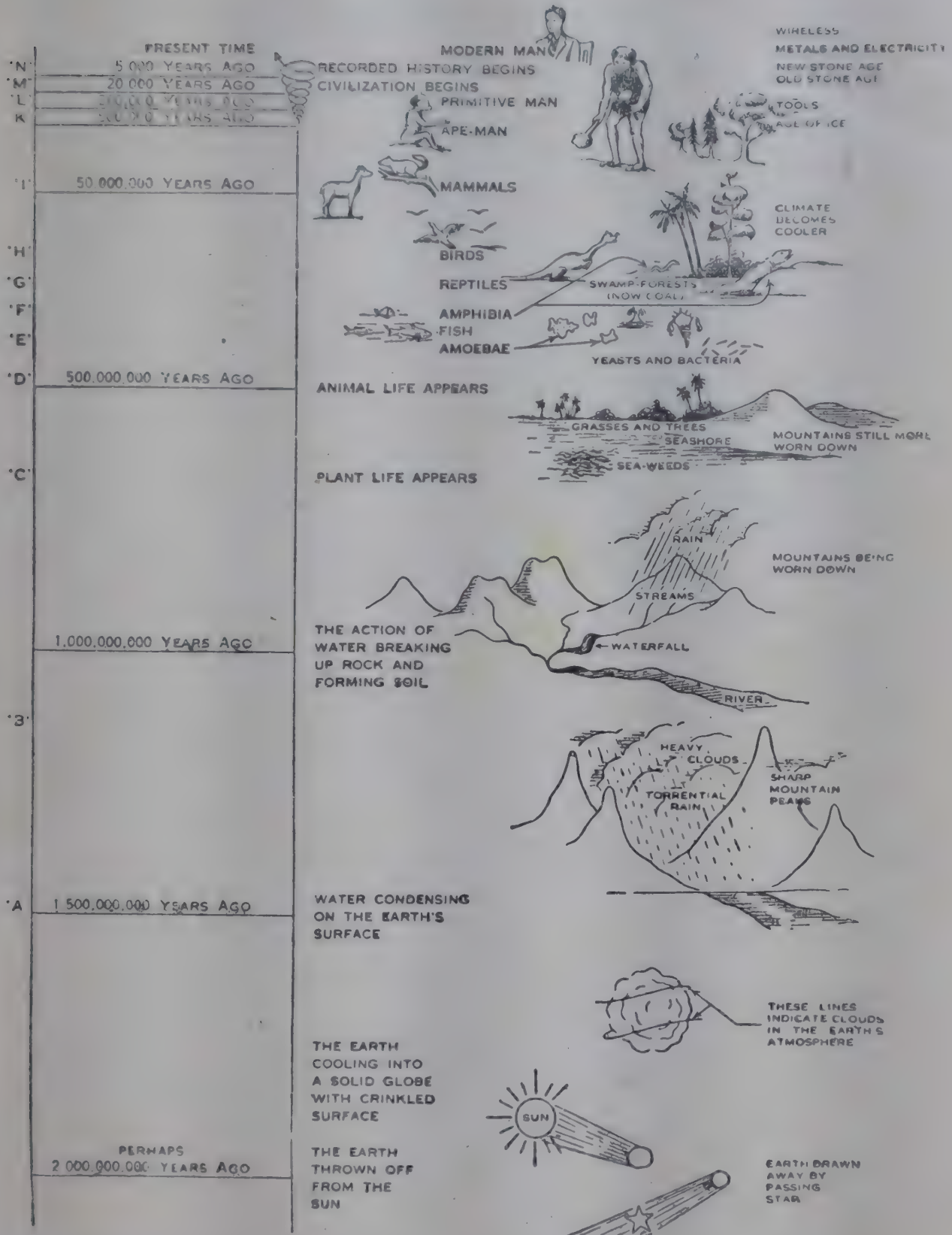


ago, the simplest kind of living things began to appear. They were probably water-plants which grew on the margins of warm and shallow seas. No one yet knows why or how they first began: no scientist has been able to make life begin in non-living material. That is one of the great mysteries which Man's mind has not yet been able to solve, but which he is studying and trying to understand. *About 500,000,000 years ago the simplest forms of animals began to grow*, shapeless and jelly-like (they are called 'amoeba'): but they have the chief qualities which mark living things—power to feed and grow, and power to reproduce themselves. Through millions of years new kinds of living creatures appeared: first *Fishes*; next *Amphibia* (animals such as frogs, which live both in water and on land); then *Reptiles* (lizards and snakes); then *Birds*; then, last of all, *Mammals* (animals which suckle their young ones). *50,000,000 years ago, perhaps, or more, Mammals began to appear on the earth.* Only in the final 1/100th part of that period—*about 500,000 years ago—MAN appeared.*

But 500,000 years ago Man was not like Man in his present form. He was more like an ape, but different from other monkey-like animals because *he walked upright*, and had the free use of his hands to do other things. In those early times Man lived by gathering roots and fruits for food, and by hunting and killing animals. He had to eat his food uncooked, because he had not at that time discovered how to make fire. As his intelligence increased, he began to use his hands to make *TOOLS*.

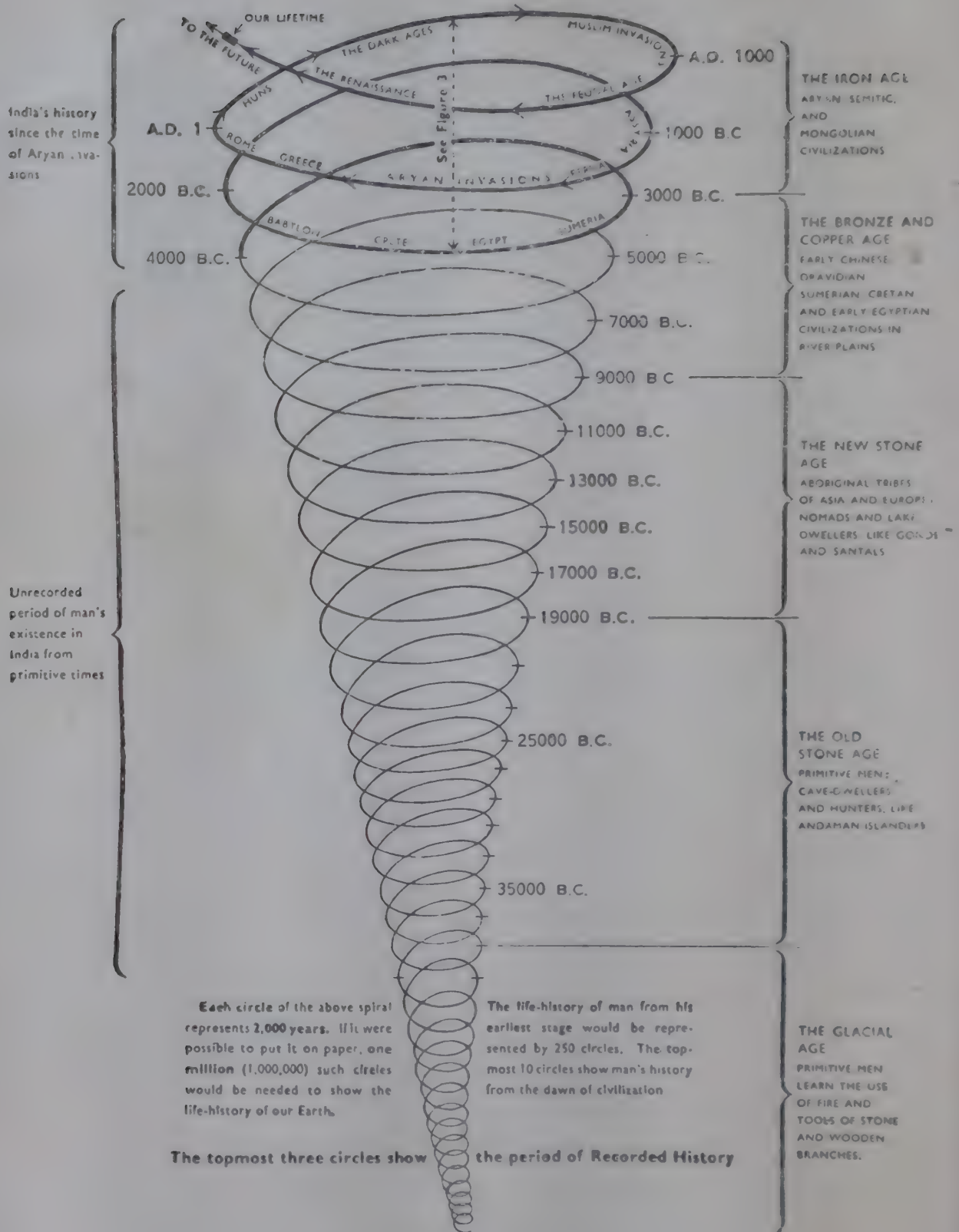
The first tools made by Man were of stone and wood. With these he was able more easily to kill animals for food. He made use of their skins as a covering for his body. *By about 20,000 B.C. he made the great discovery of FIRE*, and began to cook his meat instead of eating it raw. About this time, too, we see the beginning of art, for in the caves in which early men were then living, there are pictures of reindeer, bears, and other animals, painted on the walls by the men of that time. That period is named the *Old Stone Age*.

In the jungles of central India and in the Uva province of Ceylon there are people who still live mainly by hunting; in Ceylon they



THE STREAM OF EVOLUTION





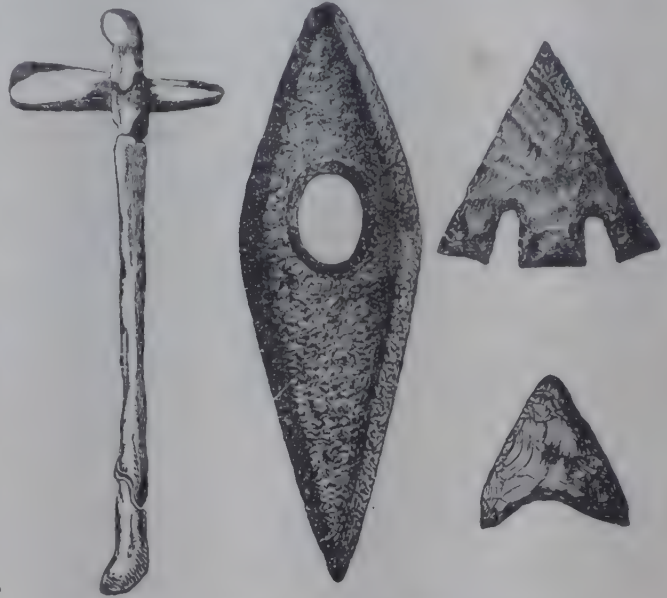
### THE LIFE-HISTORY OF MAN

(This is the topmost part of the previous illustration, enlarged many times)

are called Veddas, which means 'hunters'. They use bows and arrows for killing animals, and in the rainy season they live in caves.

[Key-Question 4: *What great discoveries were made by Man at the beginning of civilization?*]

§ 4. After 10,000 B.C. in the *New Stone Age*, Man made some more important discoveries. He was still dependent chiefly on animals for his food, but he now made some of them *tame*, such as the dog, the horse, the cow, and the sheep. He was not only a *hunter* but also a *herdsman*. He kept dogs to help him in his hunting; he kept cows and sheep for their milk and meat and skins. He made bows of wood, and arrows with sharp stones or bits of bone for the points; he made nets for



STONE TOOLS AND WEAPONS

fishing, and pots of clay, hardened by the sun's heat or by fire, like Robinson Crusoe's. He also used rough cloth and mats, for he had now made the discovery of weaving, by taking threads of skin or bits of grass or long narrow leaves over and under one another. But because he had to be on the look-out for fresh grass for his animals, it was always necessary for him to move from place to place, whenever the grass of one place came to an end. Even now herdsmen have to do this to get grass for their animals. So the men of this time were *nomads*—that is, they went from place to place, not living in one place for long. For this reason also they did not usually make houses of stones, but of branches of trees, covered with leaves, mats or skins, which they were able easily to take with them when they moved to another place. Even now the people who make



a living by keeping animals on the steppes (the grasslands of Central Asia) make houses of that kind.

About 5,000 B.C. men made another very important discovery which was the cause of a great change in their way of living. It was *the discovery of agriculture*. For a long time they had



LANDS OF THE NOMADS AND SETTLERS

been used to taking the fruits of trees and the seeds of some kinds of grass and other plants for food. The best seeds for eating were those of the wheat plant, which was a kind of grass that was common in the grasslands of the Middle East, and perhaps also the rice-plant, which was common in Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China. By planting these in the earth men found that they were able to get food every year in the *same* place, and this was less trouble for them than moving from place to place to get food. So men became *settlers*; that is, they now made their living in one place by means of agriculture.

The places they chose for their settled life were naturally those countries where the earth was rich and able to grow good crops through having a warm climate and enough water. Such places were the wide flat lands through which great rivers were running,

such as Egypt, Mesopotamia (the land between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, to which the name Iraq is now given), the Indo-Gangetic plain of India, and the great river-plains of China. These were the places where men first became settlers, and where agriculture had its starting-point. These were the places where men first made strong houses of cut stone (as in Egypt), or of bricks (as in Mesopotamia where there were no stones to be found, but only clay from the rivers). These are the places where men first formed themselves into groups for living together safely and at peace with one another. In short, these are the places which were the starting-point of the orderly conditions of society to which we give the name *civilization*. Men's earliest civilizations were those of Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China. *The oldest of these, the civilization of Egypt, is believed to have begun about 5,000 B.C., that is, not more than 7,000 years ago.* Think of this length of time in comparison with the figures mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, where you learned that Man first appeared on the earth about 500,000 years ago. You will see that it was only during the last 7/500ths (about 1/70th) of his total existence on the earth, that Man has begun to be civilized. If you compare the total existence of Man to the number of years of life which men usually live (say about 70 years), then you will see that the period during which Man has begun to be civilized is equivalent to only *one* year of a man's lifetime. Civilized Man is only a baby of one year old! When we think about Man in that way, we can understand that the progress he has made in that short time is really remarkable. And, still more remarkable is the possibility of Man's progress in the future which lies ahead. Man's intelligence, and the ways in which he has used it to change the world around him, is a wonderful thing. But, like a sharp tool, it can be used to injure as well as to create. *The big problem which has to be solved by us, in our own modern civilization, is how to use our intelligence for the improvement of the whole world and everyone in it, and not allow it to be used selfishly, to gain advantages for ourselves and a few other people only.*



## EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the important discoveries of Man from the earliest times until the beginning of civilization.
2. In what parts of the world did men first begin to be settlers, and why in those regions?
3. In what ways is Man's intelligence 'like a sharp tool'? In what way ought we to learn to use our intelligence?
4. Write something about any primitive people you have heard of (such as the Bhils, the Santals, the Todas, or the Veddas).

## 2

*The First Civilizations*

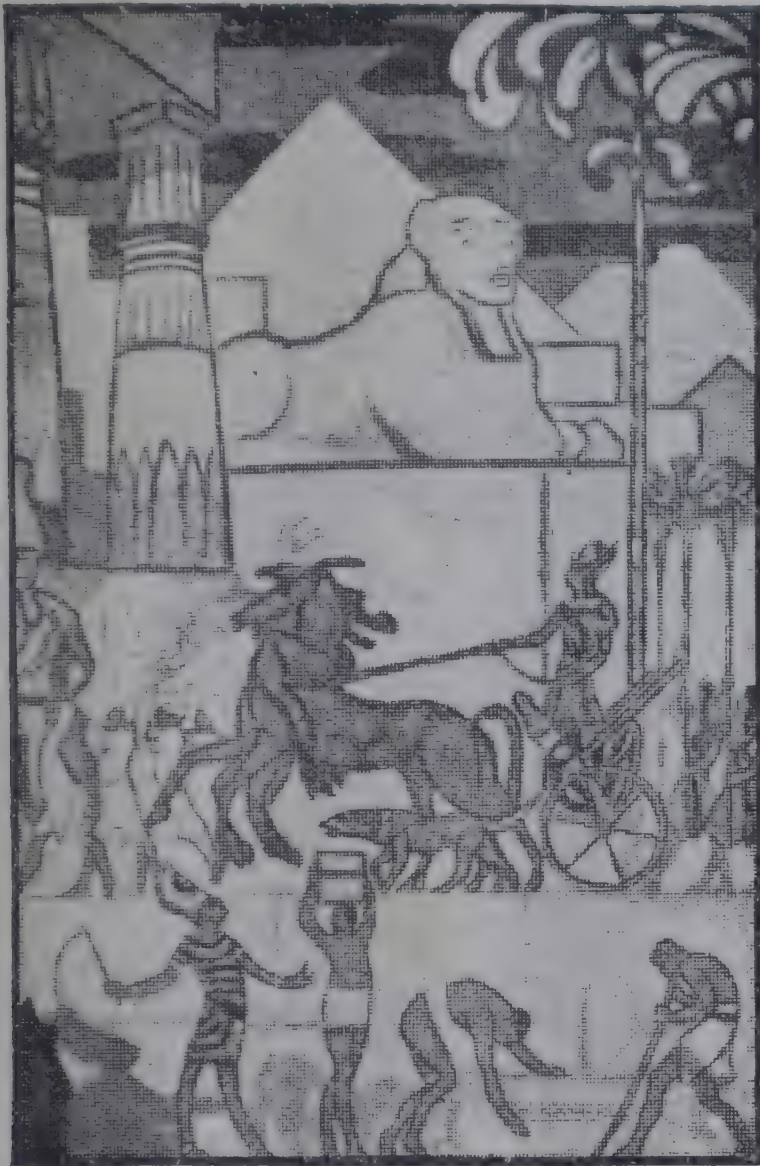
## SECTION 3 : EGYPT, MESOPOTAMIA, INDIA, CHINA

[Key-Question 5 : *In what ways did the people of ancient Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China contribute to the civilization of Man ?*]

§ 5. (1) EGYPT. The river Nile makes Egypt one of the best places for agriculture. On all sides there are great wastes of sand, the Sahara and Libyan deserts. But the river, coming from the mountains of equatorial Africa where rainfall is frequent and great in amount, has made a long wide valley across the desert towards the Mediterranean Sea. There is a branch of the river, named the Blue Nile, which comes from the mountains of Abyssinia. Here there is much rain in summer, and the water coming into Egypt from the Blue Nile is the cause of the floods which take place just after the summer of every year. In these floods much fertile earth is transported by the water, and the distribution of this earth over the fields on every side makes them ready for the planting of the crops. Because of these regular floods the fields do not become infertile even if the same crop is planted year after year ; and, even though there is almost no rainfall, the crops can be watered from the river. So naturally this country became one of the first places in which there was a great development of agriculture.

In such conditions, where it was not hard to make a good living, men had time for doing other things, i.e. spare time, or *leisure* as we call it. The existence of leisure is very important

for the development of civilization, for it is only when men have time for doing other things in addition to working for their



living, that there can be development of arts and crafts. So the people of Egypt had leisure to become expert in many ways because they made their living by agriculture, and not simply as nomadic herdsmen. The great buildings of stone, which they made for their religion, may still be seen, though in a broken condition after so many thousands of years. Among them are the Pyramids, great masses of stones, hundreds of feet high, deep down under which they put the dead bodies of their kings, after putting covering of cloth round them, with chemical

SLAVES BUILDING THE TEMPLES OF EGYPT  
substances to keep them from decay.

The writing of the Egyptians was in pictures, and they did this writing on the leaves of a plant from the Nile, named 'papyrus' (from which we get our word 'paper'). They also did writing and painting on the walls of their buildings, some of which can still be seen after thousands of years.



EGYPTIAN HIERO-  
GLYPHIC

(This represents the  
English word 'lake'.)

(2) MESOPOTAMIA. Mesopotamia (or Iraq) is the land between two rivers, Tigris and Euphrates. It does not



have such great floods as Egypt because those rivers have their starting-points in the mountains of Armenia, in Asia Minor.

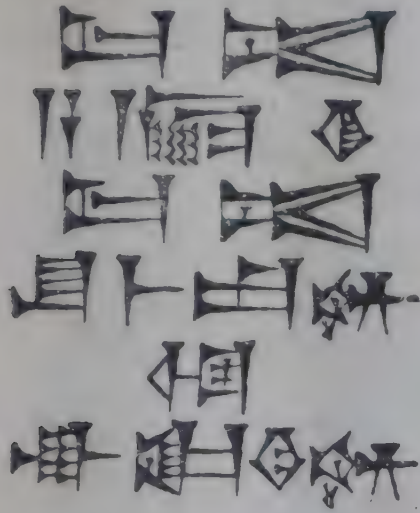


THE CRADLES OF CIVILIZATION

That part of the earth is drier than central and eastern Africa where the river Nile has its starting-point. The people who became settlers in Mesopotamia therefore had to discover another way of watering their crops. This was by causing the water to go from the river to the fields in waterways cut in the earth, i.e. irrigation canals. This was a great invention. Some of those old irrigation canals can even now be seen in Mesopotamia after so many years. Some have been broken and the land has again become a sandy waste in those parts.

There was no stone in Mesopotamia, as there was in Egypt. But there was much sticky earth or clay in the river valley, and the people soon became expert in making bricks from the clay. They made use of bricks not only for their buildings, but even for writing on! Their books were on bricks, not on paper and scientists interested in the history of the past (archæologists) have come across libraries of thousands and thousands of those bricks, with writing on them, in the deserts

of Mesopotamia where once there were great towns and fertile fields.



BABYLONIAN CUNEIFORM  
WRITING

For many thousands of years men lived in Mesopotamia, and became gradually more and more civilized. The early civilization of Mesopotamia is noted specially for one important development. When men were formed into groups living together, it was found necessary to have rules for keeping peace among them, and ways of putting those rules into force. Strong men, who made themselves leaders and kings, had their armies by the help of which they forced those under their rule to do what they were ordered to do.

But it was also necessary for the people to have a knowledge of the rulers' orders. Among the old books on bricks, which scientists of our times have found in Mesopotamia, are some in which the laws of those times have been written down by order of a king named Hammurabi. They are the oldest books of law in existence.

(3) INDIA. It is probable that civilization in India had its starting-point in the great fertile valleys both of the Indus and the Ganges; but the remains of such civilizations have been discovered so far only in the valleys of the Indus and some other rivers of the Punjab. The cause of this may be that such remains in the Ganges valley are buried deep under the thick mud brought down by that river. In the Indus valley the discovery of a very old civilization was made 26 years ago at a place named Mohenjo Daro. Here are the ruins of a great town much older than the Vedic times, with good streets, houses with drains and bath rooms, quite as well made as those of our time, and even a beautiful public bath or swimming pool. It is clear from these signs that the men and women of that town had reached a high stage of development. The discovery of similar things in the ruins of Mesopotamia and of Mohenjo Daro makes it probable that there



was connexion between those two civilizations. And there is one other point in which they are alike. Both these civilizations came to an end between 2,500 B.C. and 2,000 B.C. through the invasion of tribes of less civilized men who spoke Aryan languages,



THE GREAT BATH, MOHENJO DARO

languages rather like Sanskrit and old Persian. We shall learn about those invasions in the next section.

(4) CHINA. It is quite certain that men very early became settlers in the valleys of the great rivers of China, as they did in those of Egypt, Mesopotamia and India. In fact, no other people are even to this day more expert in agriculture than the Chinese. They are among the most highly civilized of all nations, and certainly their civilization has had an unbroken existence for a longer time than any other. But up to now scientists have not been able to make any discoveries of ruins in China as old as those of Egypt, Mesopotamia, and India. Probably they may do so, in days to come.

#### EXERCISES

1. In what ways were Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China specially suitable for the growth of civilization?

2. Find out more about the ancient Egyptians and what they are famous for. How do we know about what happened so long ago?

3. Read about the 'Indus civilization' and write something about it. (See 'Most Ancient India' in *Quest and Conquest* by Dr Malcolm Burr.)

## SECTION 4 : THE ARYAN-SPEAKING PEOPLES

[Key-Question 6 : *How have 'natural conditions' influenced the civilization of Man ?*]

§ 6. It is interesting to try to understand why and how civilization has developed in certain parts of the world and not in others.<sup>1</sup> Some modern historians say that Man's intelligence has developed rapidly in parts of the world where natural conditions (climate, soil, mineral wealth, vegetation) make it possible for men to live without too great a struggle, and yet not too easily. If the natural conditions make life too easy (as in places where food can be easily gathered, and does not have to be planted and watered and looked after carefully), men become lazy and do not develop intelligence and skill to overcome difficulties. On the other hand, if natural conditions are very hard indeed (as in the dense equatorial forests and the ice-covered regions of the Arctic and Antarctic, or on very high mountains), men have to struggle so hard to get food and keep themselves alive that they have no strength or leisure for other things and consequently do not develop a civilization. It seems to be true that the *most favourable conditions for men to develop their intelligence and to improve in civilization are conditions of moderate difficulty*. In such places the challenge of the problems which men have to solve in order to live, develop their strength of character, just as we can develop our bodies best by moderate exercise and not either by laziness or by overstrain. Such challenges were met by the men who first lived in northern Egypt (where they had to clear the banks of the river Nile for growing their crops), in Mesopotamia, India and China (where they had to dig wells and irrigation canals), and

<sup>1</sup> For fuller discussion of this interesting question, teachers are advised to read Arnold Toynbee's great book *A Study of History* of which a one-volume condensation has been made by D. C. Somervell.



in coastal regions where the sea was their challenge and also the source of their food-supply and of articles exchanged with other peoples. A good example of a natural challenge causing civilization to develop is *Ceylon*. The south-west part of Ceylon is now the most fertile and most thickly populated; but the ancient civilization of the Sinhalese developed in the dry parts of the island, the north and east, where the people constructed great irrigation tanks and canals to bring water to their paddy-fields.<sup>1</sup> When those tanks and canals were neglected and destroyed, that ancient civilization broke down. The new government of the Dominion of Ceylon is rebuilding them so that more crops may be grown to feed and clothe the people.

If men had no desire to go out of the countries in which they were born, there would be much less trouble in the world, but certainly it would be a mere sleepy kind of existence. Three chief causes seem to make men desire to go out of their own countries. (1) a desire for change, for experience of new things; (2) an increase in their numbers which makes the supply of their food not enough for the needs of all; (3) a change in the weather conditions of that part of the earth where they are settlers, so that their crops fail year after year. Possibly all these three causes together had the effect of making the Aryan-speaking tribes<sup>2</sup> invade other lands.

<sup>1</sup> see Section 6, § 11.)

<sup>2</sup> It is not correct to use the word 'Aryan' as if it meant a special race or nation. In every country to which they went, the Aryan-speaking people intermarried with the people of that country and, in the thousands of years which have gone by, they have become so completely mixed that it is not possible to say that 'this man is Aryan' or 'this man is not Aryan' except in countries where people of other races, such as Mongolians and Negroes, are in much greater number and intermarriage is not common.

The word 'Aryan', is now rightly used only in connexion with *language*. That is, we may use the term 'an *Aryan-speaking* people' because in the case of most countries where their invasions took place, the Aryan-speaking invaders gave their language to the people of those countries. Sometimes some of their ideas and ways of doing things were taken over too, for example in South India where the religious ideas underlying Hinduism, the division into castes, and so on, were taken over by the Dravidians, the people who were living in India before the Aryan-speaking people came.

[Key-Question 7 : *From where did the Aryan-speaking tribes come? What countries did they invade, and why?*]

§ 7. These tribes seem to have had their early development in the flat grassy country north of the Caspian and Aral Seas. They spoke a language something like Sanskrit, an older form of Sanskrit, from which not only our Sanskrit has come but also all Aryan languages such as Persian, Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, German and English, Sinhalese, Urdu, and most of the modern languages of India, except those of the south, such as Tamil.

The Mongol tribes living in the drier lands farther east were chiefly herdsmen of horses and sheep; the Aryans were cattle-keeping people. They had some knowledge of agriculture too: they made use of bullocks for ploughing; their chief crop was barley, which they also made into a drink, called *soma*. But the property which they valued most of all was their herds of cattle. The wealth of a man was valued in terms of so many cattle. And to cause the death of a cow was in their eyes one of the worst of crimes.

They were living in tribes scattered over a large region. Each tribe had its leader who was also sometimes the chief priest of the tribe. The tribes often went to war against each other, but at certain times of the year they all came together for religious purposes, to worship the gods common to them all, the gods of the Sky, the Wind, the Thunder and the Sun. Men who were able to make and to sing verses in praise of their gods were highly valued among them. It is these religious verses which have come down to us as the *Rig-Veda*, the oldest book of the Aryan-speaking peoples.

The weather conditions of Central Asia were in those times different from what they are now. There was more rain, and parts which are now waste lands were then covered with trees and grass. One of the causes which made the Aryans go to other places was almost certainly that the rainfall became less and less at that time, which had the effect of making it hard for them to get enough food and grass. Probably also their numbers were



getting greater, which made it still harder. And they were warlike men, with a desire for experience of new things, and new lands. So group after group, tribe after tribe, they went away from their old homes, going through the gaps in the Himalayas to attack the more ancient civilized Dravidian peoples who were then living peacefully in the Punjab. Some went into Persia, some through the Caucasus into Armenia and Mesopotamia, and some westwards into Europe, first into the Balkan Peninsula, then into Italy, and finally some into Russia, Germany, Scandinavia, France and the British Isles.

These events did not take place in a few years, or even in a few hundred years; they were going on for more than a thousand years, from about 2,500 B.C., when Aryans first made attacks on the people of Mesopotamia, till about 1,500 B.C., when India was invaded; and after that Aryan invasions of Europe went on, one after another, for nearly two thousand years more. In fact the Aryan-speaking peoples went on taking new lands right up to the time when, only a few hundred years ago, the Spanish, French and British set up colonies on the continent of America and the Dutch and British did the same in South Africa and Australia. There is no continent into which Aryan-speaking peoples have not gone, though most of Eastern Asia is still chiefly the home of Mongolian peoples, such as the Chinese, Japanese, Siamese and Burmese.

The first Aryan-speaking people who settled in Ceylon came from India about 500 B.C. It is not certain whether they came from the region which is now Bengal and Orissa or from the western region now called Gujarat. They came in ships and first settled in the plains of the north, east, and south-east of Ceylon. The oldest history of Ceylon (the *Mahawansa*, written at least 1,000 years later) tells of the landing of an Aryan prince, VIJAYA. His father is said to have been Sinha-bahu, chief of the Lion tribe (Sinhala). It is this word which has given the name to the Aryan language which the settlers brought with them to Ceylon. The Sinhalese are said to have named the island *Tambapani* from the copper colour which they found on their hands when they touched

the red soil. Whether this is true or not, it is certain that these Aryan-speaking settlers built up the first known civilization in the isle of Lanka. They brought well-made iron tools and weapons with them. They brought rice, and the knowledge of how to cultivate it. They brought the first system of government by village councils (*gan-sabha*), which has lasted in Ceylon till today.

## EXERCISES

1. What are the 'most favourable conditions for men to develop their intelligence and to improve in civilization'? In what parts of the world were such conditions found?
2. What causes men to desire to leave the countries in which they were born?
3. Who were the Aryan-speaking peoples and how did they live in the earliest times?
4. Who were the first Aryan-speaking invaders of India and Ceylon and what did they do?

## 3

*The Persians,  
the Greeks, and Ashoka the Great*

SECTION 5 : GREAT TEACHERS AND  
SCIENTISTS OF ANCIENT TIMES

[Key-Question 8 : *What was done by Confucius, Buddha, Socrates and Aristotle to make men more civilized?*]

§ 8. There have been certain times in the history of Man when events of the same kind have taken place in quite a number of parts of the earth. One such time was about the year 500 B.C. Within a hundred years on either side of that time the greatest teachers of religion were born in China, in India and in Greece.

In China there were two great religious teachers living at the same time, one in north China, by name K'ung-fu-tzu (K'ung being the name of his tribe, and 'fu-tzu' meaning 'great teacher'). The Latin form of this name is CONFUCIUS.<sup>1</sup> The great teacher in south China was LAO-TZE<sup>2</sup> (the 'old wise man').

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'kon-few-shus'.

<sup>2</sup> Pronounced 'lay-ote-zay'.



To this day the Chinese remember these two great men with deep respect and the everyday life of China is chiefly ordered according to their teachings.

The teaching of Confucius was rather like the laws of Manu of the Hindus. It was chiefly rules about behaviour of every sort, and for all sorts of men, from kings and rulers downwards. Because their lives have been ordered by these wise rules for thousands of years, the Chinese have now great power of self-control, and are able to do hard work and put up with trouble without giving up hope.

The teachings of Lao-tze were somewhat like those of the Hindu Upanishads, having to do with the question of what is true existence and how to know what is true.

At about the same time in India, the great teacher GAUTAMA BUDDHA was also giving out somewhat similar teachings. He was the eldest son of a king of the Sakya tribe, one of the Aryan tribes which had settled in that part of north India which is now in Uttar Pradesh. Gautama did not wish to become a king. He was determined to find out the cause of the sorrow and suffering, which he saw around him, so that it might be got rid of. For many years he tried to get this knowledge. At last he said that he had made the discovery that the cause of all our pain and trouble is the desire of three kinds. First, the desire to give pleasure to the senses of the body ; second, the desire to continue our existence after the death of the body ; third, the desire to have private property and to be respected by others. If a man is able to overcome these desires by training himself in self-control, he will be completely happy whatever events may happen, and whether he is rich or poor. The Buddha made clear the steps of this way of self-control, to which he gave the name of *The Noble Eightfold Way*. It is a strange fact that the religion of the Buddha has almost completely disappeared in his own country of India, but it has been taken far and wide into other lands—Ceylon, Burma, Siam, China and Japan, and even into Europe and America. Buddhism is still the religion of a larger number of men and women than any other religion.

Also in north India, at the same time, there was another great teacher named MAHAVIRA. The religion started by him is named

Jainism, the religion of the Jinas, the conquerors, or those who have overcome the troubles of life. This religion is somewhat like Buddhism. Like Buddha, Mahavira also said that men must live without putting any other creature to death. The Jains take great care to carry out this order, some even covering their mouths so that small insects may not go in. There are even now more than a million Jains in India, but very few in any other countries.



GAUTAMA, THE BUDDHA

In Section 4 we have seen how the Aryan-speaking tribes went into Europe. Some of them became settlers in Greece and the islands of the eastern Mediterranean Sea. It was in one of these Greek islands, Samos, that the great Greek teacher PYTHAGORAS was born. Later, Pythagoras set up a school in the south of Italy. Another famous wise man of the Greeks was SOCRATES,<sup>1</sup> and after him came PLATO,<sup>2</sup> who was at first a pupil of Socrates.

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'Sok-rat-tees'.

<sup>2</sup> Pronounced 'Play-toe'.



The wise men of the Greeks were important in a special way, for modern Science has its starting-point from them. Socrates was the great questioner. He was always putting questions to other men, carrying on arguments with them to make them give closer attention to their own beliefs, thoughts, and acts, testing whether the beliefs were true or the actions right. Socrates was loved and respected by other wise men like Plato, but he was hated by those who did not wish to think carefully about their own beliefs and acts. In the end these foolish men had Socrates put to death, by making him drink poison.

Plato was one of the first men to write a book about a better system of living and of government. In some of his books he gave an account of the ideas of Socrates; in another book, named *The Republic*, he described his idea of the best sort of government for a country, and the best way of living. Plato also set up a school in Athens to which he gave the name of 'The Academy', and one of the pupils in that school was ARISTOTLE,<sup>1</sup> who became the teacher of Alexander the Great. Aristotle was a great scientist, who was always trying to discover the substances of which things are made, and how they have come into existence and do their work. We may say that modern science really began with Aristotle.

[Key-Question 9 : *What did the ancient Greeks contribute to civilization ?*]

§ 9. About 500 B.C. the Aryan-speaking people of Persia (now named Iran) conquered the Babylonians who had set up their empire in Mesopotamia. These Aryan-speaking Persians now set up a great empire of their own,<sup>2</sup> under their greatest king, DARIUS the First. Darius was an able leader and expert in the art of government. He made good roads in all parts of his empire. He conquered Egypt, Asia Minor and all the countries of the Middle East from the river Indus to the Mediterranean, and from the Persian Gulf to the Black Sea. But this was not enough for him. He wanted to have all the countries of the world in his

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'Ariss-tot'l'.

<sup>2</sup> See map on page 14.

empire. He gathered a very great army and took it through Asia Minor and across the Bosphorus into Europe. Then he went north, across the river Danube into south Russia. But here he was faced by the Scythians,<sup>1</sup> a nomadic people who were good fighters. He was not then able to go farther, but he did not give up his attempt. After some years he again took his army into Europe. This time he went south towards the country of the Greeks. He also sent warships to make an attack on the Greeks by sea. The Greeks were in great danger.

These Greeks were also Aryan-speaking people who had gone into Europe from Asia, for the same cause which made other Aryans go into India and Persia (see § 7). They were not all under the rule of a single government, but each tribe had its own land and its own separate government. Athens was the most famous town among the Greeks, but there were others such as Thebes, Sparta and Corinth. Frequently the people of these places made war against each other, but when the news came that Darius was on the way with his army and warships, the Greeks decided to unite and to put their armies under a single leader for the fight against this great danger. If they had not done this, there is no doubt that Darius would have overcome them and would have conquered a great part of Europe. But the united armies of the Greeks were able to put a stop to Darius's idea of being the ruler of the world. A great fight took place at Marathon, a little town to the north of Athens, and the Persian armies were forced back into their ships, and back to Asia. The death of Darius took place not long after; but about ten years later his son, XERXES,<sup>2</sup> made another attempt to invade Europe. The result was the same. There was a great sea-fight with the Greeks, and at Plataea<sup>3</sup> the armies of the Persians were also put to flight. They did not make another attempt to come to Europe.

It is interesting to note that the religion of the Persians was the same as that of the Parsees of India today. These teachings were

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'Sith-ee-uns'.

<sup>2</sup> Pronounced 'Zerk-sees'.

<sup>3</sup> Pronounced 'Plat-ee-e(r)'.



given out by a wise man of Persia named Zoroaster or ZARATHUSTRA, who lived about 800 B.C. Long after, when the Muslims of Arabia took Persia, they did not let the Persians keep their old religion, so some of them fled to India. This was in the sixth century A.D. The Persians were thus the forefathers of the Parsees of our time.

After their struggle against the Persians, the Greeks became a surprisingly great people for a short time, and the work which they did is important in the history of Man, because it was the starting-point of many new ideas. Before this time, men had generally been under the rule of a king or leader who got into power by the use of force or because his father had been king before him. The Greek towns were not ruled in this way. Each of them was a little republic, that is, the townsmen made their selection of men to do the work of government; the men who had the approval of the greatest number of townsmen were given the positions of leaders. This system of government is named *democracy*. There were such republics in India, too, in the time of Buddha.

The greatest of the Greek town-republics was Athens, and in the fifty years after the battle of Plataea (479 B.C.) civilization came up to a very high level there. In his attack on the Greeks, XERXES had taken the town of Athens and had done much damage to its buildings: but under the great Greek leader, PERICLES,<sup>1</sup> Athens became even more beautiful than before, and the great artist and builder, PHIDIAS,<sup>2</sup> set up temples and other buildings of marble, and made statues, which, even after nearly 2,500 years, we still look up to as examples of the highest beauty. The Greeks gave much attention to the development of the body, as may be seen from the statues they made, and every fourth year there were competitions in all kinds of sports at a place near Mount Olympus in northern Greece. These Olympic Games went on for more than a thousand years, and the Olympic Games of the present day are a copy of those games.

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'Pair-rik-less'.

<sup>2</sup> Pronounced 'Fy-dee-ass'.

Modern science also had its starting point from those great Greeks of olden times. The great teacher, Socrates, the great philosophers, Plato and Aristotle, and many other great thinkers and writers of books in the Greek language, lived during that time.

Thus we see that, though there was no great Greek empire, and though the Greek civilization did not keep up to the same high



ATHENS AND THE PARTHENON

level for more than a few hundred years, the acts and ideas of the Greeks have had far greater effect on the development of Man than those of all the kings and soldiers who conquered other lands and peoples.

#### EXERCISES

1. Write something about the teachings of Buddha and of Socrates.
2. How were the cities of ancient Greece governed? Do we have the same sort of government nowadays?
3. What good things have come to our civilization from the example of the ancient Greeks?
4. Are there any remains today of the civilization of the ancient Persians?



## SECTION 6 : ALEXANDER AND ASHOKA

[Key-Question 10 : *What was done by Alexander and Ashoka and what effects had their deeds upon civilization ?*]

§ 10. When free people are united in resisting an attacker, they are generally able to defend their country successfully—as the Greeks did against the Persians. This is because they take part in such a struggle willingly, and with a great desire to keep themselves free. But if they have no agreement among themselves, they become weak. This was what happened among the Greek democracies soon after the danger from the Persians was over. The greatest days of the Greeks soon ended. There were divisions among them everywhere. But after about a hundred years, a chief from the north part of the Balkan Peninsula, the part named Macedonia, came into power with the help of his strong army, and by force he got all the Greeks under his control. This chief was ALEXANDER OF MACEDON, generally named Alexander the Great. After getting all the Greek cities into his power, he made up his mind first to punish the Persians, and then to get the whole world under his rule.

In 333 B.C. Alexander defeated the Persians at the battle of Issus in Syria; then he took his army into Egypt and conquered that country. Then he set out to destroy the Persian Empire. He took his army first into Mesopotamia, and then into the very heart of Persia itself. He made attack after attack on the army of the Persian king Darius III (grandson of the first Darius) until the Persian power was broken. The Persian king took to flight, and was in the end put to death by his own soldiers. Then Alexander went on into the country now named Russian Turkestan, and from there to Afghanistan and India. But he was not able to go farther than the river Indus, because his soldiers were too tired and wanted to go back to their families after so many years of fighting. Alexander therefore put a part of his army in ships and sent them down the river Indus and back to Mesopotamia by sea. With the others he went on foot across southern Persia; it was very hard to do that because the country is almost a desert. Only

after the loss of half his men on the way, Alexander came back at last to the Persian capital, having been away eight years. A year later, he himself died of fever.

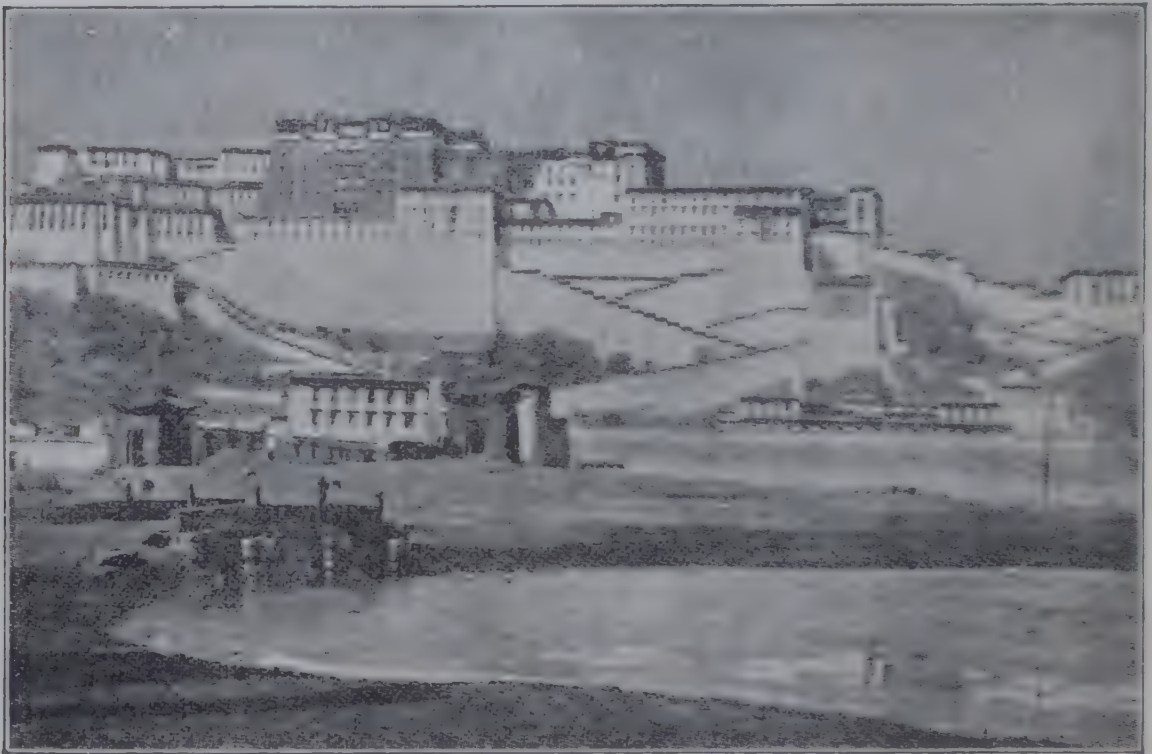


Alexander is important in history not so much because he was a great soldier and got so many countries under his control, but because it was through his journeying to distant countries that an exchange of ideas took place between those countries and eastern Europe. There was even an exchange of blood too, for Alexander and many of his chief men, and many of his soldiers, married women of the countries which came under their control. When Alexander himself was dead, a division of his great empire was made among the chief leaders of his army. One of these, by name Seleucus, tried to get north India under his rule, but he was forced to go back by the Indian king Chandragupta Maurya, grandfather of Ashoka the Great; and some of the land in Afghanistan and the Punjab taken by Alexander and his Greeks was retaken by the Indians. After this there was peace between them, and we know from old Greek books and from writings on stone monuments that many Greeks made journeys into India, going even as far south as Ujjain.



Many of these Greeks became Buddhists, and in north India there are many statues of Buddha, made by Greeks in the Greek style.

The greatest expansion of the Buddhist religion took place at this time and the cause of it was the great interest which KING ASHOKA, the grandson of King Chandragupta Maurya, took in that religion. It is said that he made up his mind to become a Buddhist after seeing the shocking effects of the war he fought against the



THE GREAT BUDDHIST MONASTERY, LHASSA

people of Kalinga (now named Orissa), to get their country into his empire. From that time he had the strongest desire only to do good to as many people as possible. The rest of Ashoka's life (which happily was a long one) was given up to work for the well-being of his people. He made good roads, rest-houses, wells; he had trees and gardens planted for public use; he set up hospitals for men and animals; he had the poor and the backward peoples of his empire looked after. Ashoka is still kept in memory as perhaps the best king who ever ruled over a great empire. His desire to do good went even beyond the boundaries of his own empire. For, in the hope that other kings and peoples might

become as peace-loving and happy as he had become through living according to the teachings of Buddha, he sent out wise men to many countries to teach the Buddhist religion. It was through the work of these men, sent by Ashoka, that Buddhism went to Ceylon, Burma, Tibet and China.

[Key-Question 11 : *In what parts of Ceylon did the ancient Sinhalese civilization develop and why?*]

§ 11. Ashoka ruled in India from 274 B.C. to 237 B.C. By that time the descendants of the first Sinhalese settlers in Ceylon had built up a civilization. Its capital at Anuradhapura is said to have been founded about 370 B.C. by KING PANDUKABHAYA who began the great irrigation works which made those dry lands fertile for more than 1,500 years. Pandukabhaya's son (or perhaps his grandson) was Devanampiya Tissa, during whose reign Ashoka's son (or some say his younger brother), MAHINDA, brought Buddhism to Ceylon.

Is it not a remarkable thing that civilization developed in the drier parts of the island, which are now the most backward, rather than in the fertile wet regions of the south-west and south? What are the reasons for this?

One of the reasons may have been that the Sinhalese came in small ships southwards along the coast of India, so they naturally arrived first in the north and north-east parts of Ceylon. Here they found harbours in which their ships could shelter, and rivers up which they could easily sail into the interior. There were trees on the banks of the rivers, but the jungle was not too thick for them to clear for cultivation. When they went farther south they found dense equatorial forests with great trees too big to cut down easily.

But in the dry region they had to face a different sort of difficulty. The rain came almost entirely during one season, that of the north-east monsoon. The rest of the year was dry, and they could grow crops then only in places where they could bring water to the fields. They soon found out that water must be stored in tanks during the monsoon, to be let out slowly through irrigation-channels into the



fields whenever they became too dry. We do not know whether the Sinhalese brought their knowledge of how to do this from north India, or whether they discovered it for themselves in Ceylon. But King Pandukabhaya is said to have built the Abhaya-wewa (or Basarakulama) at his new capital city of Anuradhapura as early as 360 B.C. It was made by building a big bund or dam of earth to catch the water of the Malvatu Oya as it flowed slowly from the hills north of Dambulla to the sea near Mannar (where Vijaya is supposed to have first landed). By means of such irrigation works the people of Pandukabhaya's kingdom were able to grow plenty of food. They increased in numbers and prosperity, and their country came to be known as Raja Rata.

In the south-east was another settlement of the early Sinhalese, and here too tanks were made by damming rivers. The capital city of this region was Mahagama, not far from where Tissamaharama now is. This region came to be known as Rohana Rata.

The central hilly region of Ceylon was at that time so thickly covered with dense forest that it was almost uninhabitable. So also were the regions that stretched south-westward from the mountains to the sea. The climate of those regions is so warm and the rains are so heavy and frequent that trees and creepers soon spring up everywhere. In spite of this a small Sinhalese kingdom was founded at the mouth of the Kalani Ganga; it was called Kalyani.

It was to the people of Raja Rata that Ashoka's son and daughter, Mahinda and Sanghamitta, first brought Buddhism from India. It gradually spread to Rohana and Kalyani also.

#### EXERCISES

1. What deeds of Alexander the Great have been important for civilization?
2. Tell the story of King Ashoka and what he did to help the world.
3. What countries did Alexander conquer and why did he not come farther into India?
4. Where did civilization develop in Ceylon, and why did it develop in those regions?

# The Roman Empire : Its Rise and Fall

## SECTION 7 : THE ROMANS

[Key-Question 12 : *How did the ancient Romans spread their rule over the western world and what have they contributed to civilization ?*]

§ 12. We have seen in § 7 how the Aryan-speaking peoples went out from central Asia, tribe after tribe, wave after wave, into India, Persia and Greece. We have seen how they became settlers in those countries and set up their own rule there. We shall now see how another wave of the same people went farther west into Italy. Here on the southern bank of the river Tiber they made a town which they called *Roma*. In English it is named Rome.

This took place perhaps about the time when Buddha was living in India, i.e. in about the sixth century B.C. Five hundred years later, all countries from Britain in the west as far as Persia, and from the Rhine and Danube rivers up to the borders of the Sahara Desert, were under the power of these people, the Romans or people of Rome. Let us see how this happened.



A ROMAN FOOT-SOLDIER

In our study of the story of the Greeks we saw how they lost their power because they were not able to work together, except when the Persians made an attack upon them. The Romans were

different in this. They trained their men for war, and to do what they were ordered by their leaders. They were united in their



desire to make the power of their people greater and greater. Soon they had the whole of Italy under their control.

But another people now came into competition with the Romans. These were the people of Carthage, a town in the north of Africa not far from where Tunis now is. These people were good sailors, and they had got much money and influence through their shipping trade. They had set up their colonies in the island of Sicily, and presently fighting took place between them and the Romans for the control of Sicily. This war lasted twenty-four years, and though the Romans were victorious, it was only after the loss of tens of thousands of men. Twenty-two years later there was again war. This time the Carthaginians nearly defeated the Romans. They had a great leader, HANNIBAL, who did a most surprising thing; he took his army from Carthage to Spain (where the Carthaginians also had colonies), and from there, with all his soldiers, baggage-wagons, and even with elephants, he went over the Pyrenees and over the snow-covered Alps, to attack the Romans in their own country. For fifteen years the Romans were in great danger, but then at last they overcame Hannibal and forced the Carthaginians to ask for peace. This time the Carthaginians had to give up their colonies in Spain to the Romans. But the Romans were all the time afraid lest the Carthaginians should again become great and strong, and they had made up their minds to destroy them completely. About fifty years later they made their last attack on Carthage. For three years the Carthaginians kept up the fight. When at last they had to give in, there were only fifty thousand people living, out of nearly five hundred thousand who had been in the town. All those fifty thousand were taken by the Romans as slaves; the land on which the buildings of Carthage had been standing was put under the plough. Its destruction was so complete that hardly any sign of the place can be seen now.

But the result of these wars was not what the Romans expected. It was the starting-point of their downfall. With so many slaves, the Romans had no need to be hard-working, and many of the farmers who had been soldiers in the war did not go back to

their farms, but got the work done by slaves, while they themselves were living a wasteful life in Rome and other big towns. Also, they no longer kept up their respect for law and order. They had a greater desire for money and comfort than for the greatness of their country. Men who had much money began to get power by bribery. The government was in the hand of one after another of these powerful men. The last and greatest of these was JULIUS CAESAR, whose name is famous, for he was a great soldier and a great statesman. When his life came to an end violently in 44 B.C. (as is told in Shakespeare's play *Julius Caesar*), there was again a fight for power among several leaders. The result was that the nephew of Julius Caesar got complete control over the Government, and in A.D. 14 he became Emperor of Rome, and Rome was 'mistress of the world'. The size of that Roman world was, as we have seen, from Britain in the west (which had



been taken by Julius Caesar) to Persia in the east; from the rivers Rhine and Danube in the north, to the Sahara Desert in the south.



It was a great world, but was not the whole. And surprising people came out of the part which was not Roman, for the destruction of Rome's great power. We shall read about them in the next Section.

From beginning to end Roman civilization lasted about 1,000 years, and though the Romans were often harsh and warlike, their orderly way of living did a great deal to change the peoples they conquered. The Romans made fine roads throughout their great empire; they made strict laws and compelled people to obey them. There was peace for many years in the countries ruled by the Romans, and people were able to live happily if they obeyed the Roman laws. In literature, music and the fine arts the Romans got many ideas from the Greeks, whom they conquered; much of the knowledge of the great Greeks has come down to us through the Romans and the civilization they made.

Let us see what was happening in India and Ceylon at this time. While the Romans and Carthaginians were destroying each other, Buddhism, the religion of peace, was being spread throughout the eastern world by Ashoka and his helpers. But when Ashoka died in 237 B.C., his empire broke up, just as the empire of Alexander had done, because his successor on the throne was not a strong and able ruler.

At the same time, the civilization so well begun by the ancient Sinhalese in Ceylon (see § 11) was in danger of being destroyed by Tamil invaders from south India. Probably, the fame of that prosperous little island, whose people had been converted to the religion of non-violence, Buddhism, reached the ears of Tamil adventurers. They expected such peace-loving people to be easily overcome, and at first they were not mistaken. The first Tamil invaders of Ceylon are said to have been Sena and Guttala, a merchant's sons. They came with an army, took the Sinhalese king by surprise, and killed him. They ruled the country for several years and were then overthrown by the king's brother. But in 145 B.C., a more dangerous Tamil invader came—ELARA, a prince of Chola, a south Indian Kingdom whose capital was at Tanjore. Elara landed on the east coast of Ceylon and soon had

all Raja Rata under his rule. He reigned for more than 40 years. But, during that time, GEMUNU, son of the Rohana king, got ready to drive out the Tamil invaders, by training a new army. It is said that his peace-loving father, King Kavan Tissa, would not allow him to go and fight the Tamils. But immediately his father died, Gemunu invaded Raja Rata. Elara was defeated and killed, and Gemunu reigned peacefully for 25 years. Some of the most famous Buddhist temples and palaces of Anuradhapura were constructed by him in honour of his victory. But from that time onward Ceylon was not often free from the danger of invasion for more than short periods.

## EXERCISES

1. What sort of people were the ancient Romans and what have we learned through them?
2. How did the success of the Romans lead to their downfall?
3. What did Gemunu do for Ceylon?

## SECTION 8 : THE HUNS

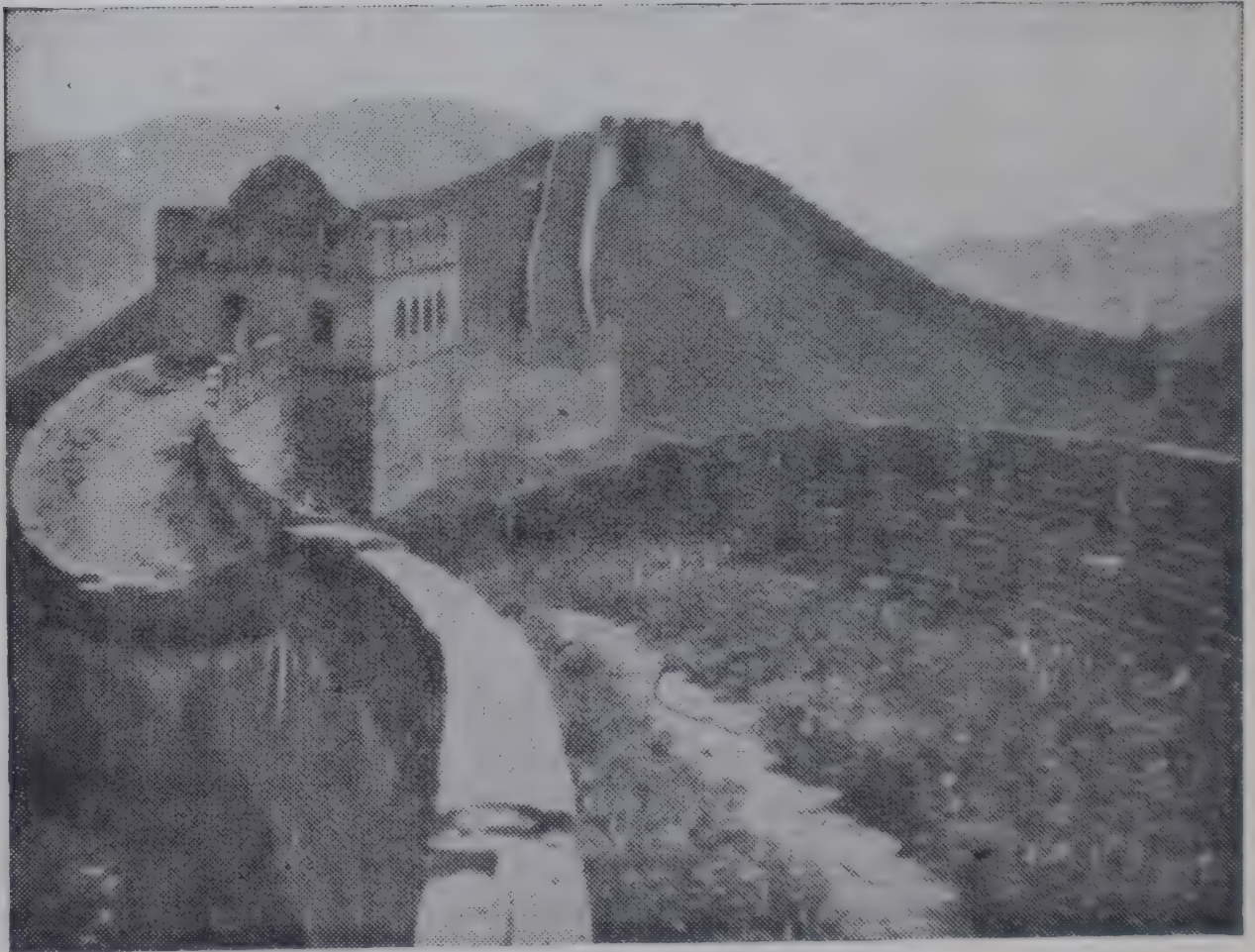
[Key-Question 13 : *What happened to civilization as a result of the invasions of the Huns ?*]

§ 13. If you look at the map of the Roman Empire on page 35, you will see that, north of the river Danube, all Europe was at that time peopled by 'barbarian tribes'. The word 'barbarian' means 'not civilized'. Before the time of Julius Caesar, France (which was then called Gaul) and Britain were also barbarian countries but Julius Caesar took them under the rule of Rome, and through the example of their Roman rulers, the Franks (French) and Britons (early British) became more civilized. But this was not so with the peoples of Germany and other countries of northern Europe. They did not come under the strong and civilizing control of Rome.

In § 7 we have seen how the invasions of India, Persia and Europe by the nomadic Aryan tribes of central Asia were caused partly by the increase of their numbers and partly by the weather conditions of central Asia becoming drier, so that they had too



little food. It now happened that another nomadic people of central Asia did the same thing as the Aryans, probably for the same reasons. These people were the HUNS, a wild yellow-skinned people of Mongolian blood. Their land was Mongolia, which is a part of eastern Asia north of the Gobi desert. About 250 B.C. (the time when the Romans were fighting the Carthaginians and when Ashoka was spreading Buddhism) these Huns tried over and over again to go southwards from Mongolia into the fertile lands of China, in the hope of getting a better living there. Their invasions did much damage to the Chinese. But China



THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

was at that time under the rule of a strong emperor, SHI HWANG-TI. He made up his mind to keep the Huns out, and to do this he made the greatest building the world has ever seen—the Great Wall of China. This wall is about 30 feet high and 12 feet thick,



in most parts of it, wide enough for a road to go along the top. It goes right across northern China from the sea-coast to the mountains far inland, a distance of nearly 1,500 miles. Not only did Shi Hwang-ti construct this great building; he also made the Chinese a strong and united nation by his wise rule. He was the first emperor under whose rule all China became one.

The Huns, not being able to go into China, then made an attack in the opposite direction. They went westwards into the Tarim Basin and from there into the country now called Turkestan, between the Arai Sea and Persia. From there some of them invaded those kingdoms which had been made by Alexander's generals, north-west of India, and after conquering those, they invaded India itself. But by coming into touch with the civilized people of India, many of the Huns themselves became civilized after some time; and the empires of the Saka and Kushan kings of India had their starting-point from these invasions. The greatest of the Kushan emperors, KANISHKA I, had under his rule the whole of India north of the river Narmada and west of Patna (or Pataliputra as it was then named), the old capital town of Ashoka.

But all the Huns did not come into India. Many many more of them went farther to the west, and invaded the lands of the Aryan-speaking tribes which had settled in eastern and northern Europe. These tribes, under the attacks of the wild Huns, made attempts to go across the rivers Rhine and Danube into the Roman empire. At first the Romans were able to put a stop to this; but, year after year, century after century, these attacks went on, and slowly the Roman power got weaker and weaker and weaker from the causes which we have seen in § 12. Little by little the northern parts of their empire had to be given up to the barbarians. At last, in A.D. 410, tribes of barbarians named Goths took the great city of Rome itself. Other tribes, named Franks, settled in Gaul, which then got the name 'France'; Angles and Saxons went across into Britain, which thus became Angle-land or England, some of its parts being named 'Essex' (land of the East Saxons), and Sussex (land of the South Saxons).



A tribe of Vandals went into Spain, and even into north Africa. The Roman empire in the west was now broken to pieces.

But the Huns still came on. And now that the Goths and Franks had themselves got control over Italy and France, they had no desire that the Huns should come any farther. They therefore asked the Romans to give them as much help as possible against the Huns. The Huns had a great leader at this time, named **ATTILA**, a man of great violence, who was ruling over them from China to Hungary. Attila now made up his mind to get all the western part of Europe into his power. He attacked the Franks, and got as far as the middle of France. Then the Franks and other tribes, helped by the Romans, at last overcame Attila's armies in a great battle in which more than 150,000 men were killed. Attila was not able to come any farther, and soon afterwards he died.

Although the Roman empire had come to an end in western Europe, it still went on in the eastern part. Before Rome was taken by the barbarians, a new capital city had been made at the place where the Black Sea is joined to the Mediterranean. This city was made by the Roman emperor **CONSTANTINE** in A.D. 330, and the city was named Constantinople after him. At the time of Attila's attack on the Franks, the only part of the Roman empire still under Roman rule was the eastern part. In this were the countries now named Greece, Turkey, Syria, Palestine and Egypt. The chief language of these countries was Greek, so Constantinople now became the most important seat of Greek learning. It was a happy chance that the barbarous Huns were not able to take Constantinople; if that had happened, the loss or destruction of most of the books, in which the knowledge of the great Greeks had been written, would have been almost certain. That would have been a very serious loss to the world. In § 20 we shall see how the Eastern Roman Empire came to an end, and where the Greek books went.

In A.D. 527 an emperor came to the throne at Constantinople who determined to reconquer the lands taken by his enemies. This was the **EMPEROR JUSTINIAN**. Through the skill and

bravery of his commander-in-chief, Belisarius, nearly all the Western Roman Empire was retaken from the barbarians, including the city of Rome itself. Justinian was an ungrateful master, for he rewarded Belisarius by putting him in prison and taking away all his property. And all the fighting and killing proved useless, for the barbarians recaptured everything after a few years.

Justinian is famous for one other deed, or rather for getting a useful piece of work done by others under his orders. The laws of Rome were in great confusion: they had not been codified (i.e. arranged in order) for hundreds of years.

It was extremely difficult to know exactly what was the law on matters about which laws had been made at different times. Justinian ordered a great lawyer first to make a 'Code' or collection of laws, and, later on, a 'Digest' or summary of how the laws had been applied in thousands of cases. This is of interest to us, because Roman Law was long afterwards introduced into most of the western European countries, including Holland. From Holland it was introduced into Ceylon by the Dutch Governor Johannes Maatsuyker, in 1646—more than 1,000 years after Justinian's Code was made. 'Roman-Dutch' law is still in use. Perhaps it is the only thing for which the Emperor Justinian is worth remembering!

#### EXERCISES

1. Who were the Huns? Why did they invade so many countries? Where were they successful and where did they fail?
2. Where is Constantinople and for what was it famous?
3. What did Justinian do for which he is remembered?



## *Christianity and Islam*

### SECTION 9 : CHRISTIANITY

#### THE GOLDEN AGE IN INDIA AND CEYLON

[Key-Question 14 : *What did Jesus Christ teach, and how did Christianity spread ?*]

§ 14. We must now go back to the time just after the death of Julius Caesar, when Caesar's nephew AUGUSTUS had made himself the first Roman Emperor, and the power of Rome was at its highest. At the eastern end of the Mediterranean is a small country named Palestine;<sup>1</sup> it is the country of the Jews, but the Romans had taken it under their rule. Here, a poor Jewish woman, wife of a carpenter who was making a journey to Jerusalem, the chief city of Palestine, gave birth to a child who became the great religious teacher, JESUS CHRIST.

It was only when he was about thirty years old that Jesus began his teaching work. Before that, he was the helper of his father in his trade of carpentry. The first people to whom he gave his teaching were poor fishermen who fished from boats in the Sea of Galilee, a lake in the north of Palestine. But little by little the things that Jesus was saying and doing came to the ears of others.

The chief idea given out by Jesus was that God is the loving father of all living beings, and that all men are therefore brothers. Their behaviour to each other should therefore be brotherly. Jesus also said that God is like a king, but His kingdom is not an earthly kingdom. The citizens of that kingdom are all those who do their best to behave according to the laws of God. The shortest statement of those laws, said Jesus, is this :—'Do to others as you would have them do to you.'

The story of Jesus and his teachings is in the New Testament of the Bible.

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<sup>1</sup> Since 1948, known as Israel.

Many of the poorer people became followers of Jesus, but most of the Jews and the Romans were full of fear and hate for this new religion. They did everything possible to stop its expansion. They put the supporters of Christianity in prison; they gave them the cruellest punishments, such as burning them alive, or giving them to hungry wild animals. But the Christians went on having their meetings in secret and they were joined by more and more supporters. At last the Romans had to give up their attempt to put down Christianity by violence. The Roman emperor Constantine himself became a Christian in A.D. 337. This was the same emperor who made the new capital of the Roman empire at Constantinople. From that time Christianity became the chief religion of Europe.

The Christianity which became the chief religion of the Roman empire, from the time of the emperor Constantine, was very different from the simple teaching about the kingdom of God which Christ gave to the fishermen of Galilee. Like the old Jewish and Roman religions it had priests and ceremonies, and presently there were arguments about these, which led to the division of the Christian church into many parts. The chief divisions were like those of the Roman empire itself; first the western Church, or that of the *Roman Catholics* as they are named, with the Pope or bishop of Rome at their head; next the eastern or *Orthodox* church, under the bishop of Constantinople; there were also separate churches in Egypt, Abyssinia, Syria and even in India. While the Western Roman Empire was being broken up by the barbarians, the Catholic Church went on with its work in the face of great dangers and difficulties. Slowly most of the barbarian kings and their people in the western countries of Europe were converted to Catholic Christianity.

[Key-Question 15 : *What great works were done in India and Ceylon at this time ?*]

§ 15. In the centuries when the barbarians were destroying the Roman Empire, civilization in India and Ceylon rose to its greatest



height, and spread far eastwards to Burma, Siam and the East Indian islands. This was the period of the Gupta emperors, of whom the most famous were Samudragupta and Chandragupta II, who is known as VIKRAMADITYA.

This was the great age of Sanskrit literature and art, for the Gupta emperors were Hindus, though they were also tolerant towards Buddhism. At this time the great Indian epics (hero-stories), the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana*, were re-written in classical Sanskrit. KALIDASA composed his famous dramas and poems. Great works of religion, law, and government (such as the *Laws of Manu* and the *Arthasastra*) were also written then.



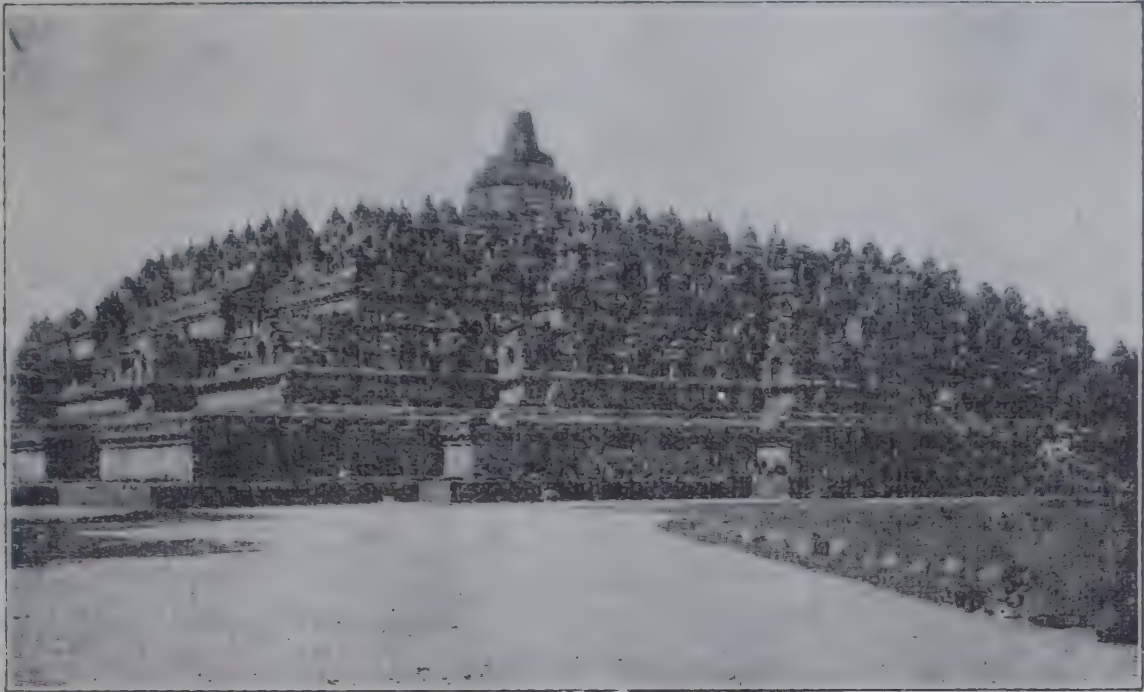
A BODHISATVA (FROM AJANTA)

The wonderful wall-paintings in the caves of Ajanta were made by Indian Buddhists at that time. In Ceylon there are similar paintings on the rock of Sigiriya. Buddhist monks lived in caves cut into hillsides at many places in north and central India, and in all those places—Karla, Kanheri, Nasik, Ajanta, Bagh—we find beautiful stone-carvings or paintings of scenes from the life of Buddha.

It is recorded that a king of Ceylon, Sri Meghavarna, sent an ambassador to the emperor Samudragupta, to ask permission to build a vihara at Buddhagaya which was not far from the Gupta capital, Pataliputra (now Patna). This shows how Ceylon was in contact with India at that time.

There was contact between all the countries of south-east Asia at this time. Buddhism and Hinduism spread into Burma, Malaya,

Siam, Cambodia and the East Indian islands; in Java the great Buddhist temple of *Borobudur* is still a wonderful sight after 1,000



BOROBUDUR

years, and so is the great Hindu temple at *Angkor Wat* in Cambodia, though Buddhism and Hinduism have vanished from those countries.

There was exchange of visitors between even more distant parts of the world, from Persia, from the Eastern Roman Empire, and from China. The Chinese pilgrim, FA-HIEN, spent many years travelling in India. From India he went to Ceylon where he stayed two years, making copies of Buddhist scriptures to take back to China. He describes Anuradhapura as a splendid city.

The great Indian Buddhist, BUDDHAGHOSA, also visited Ceylon at that time, and during his three years' stay at Anuradhapura he wrote the *Visuddhi Magga* in which the teachings of the Buddha are summarized.

But then, as now, men had not learned how to live peacefully for more than a few years. Not even the great empires of the Romans, the Persians, the Guptas of India, the Huns of China could remain long at peace. The emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire and the king of Persia were determined to conquer each



other. Each wanted to be ruler of the whole world. But while they were trying to destroy each other, the barbarians of Central Asia and Europe, the Huns and other fierce tribes, were attacking the Roman Empire in Europe, the Gupta Empire in India, and the Han Empire in the Far East.

The Roman and Persian emperors ended by ruining themselves and their peoples. The whole of the Middle East (Asia Minor, Syria, Mesopotamia and Persia) was laid waste in their wars. Then a terrible disease, the plague, spread everywhere, and killed millions of those who had not already been killed in the wars. Even today in those countries we can see ruins of great cities standing empty as they were left by their dying inhabitants.

India and Ceylon were not quite so unfortunate as the Roman and Persian empires, but they also went through a long period of invasions and disturbances after their Golden Age had come to an end. When the Buddhist pilgrim YUAN-CHWANG (or Hiouen Tsang) came from China to India in the seventh century A.D. in the reign of the emperor Harsha (who was converted to Buddhism), one of the things he noticed in many places was the ruins of temples and deserted towns.

#### EXERCISES

1. Why did the Jews and the Romans dislike Christianity and how did it succeed in spite of their opposition?
2. Write something about the Gupta Empire in India.
3. Find out more about the travels of Fa-Hien and Yuan-Chwang.

### SECTION 10 : ISLAM : THE MIDDLE AGES

[Key-Question 16 : *What did Mohammed teach and how did Islam spread ?*]

§ 16. Now came the starting-point of a new religion in the Middle East, in Arabia. From there it spread westward and eastward, bringing great changes with it. It was the religion of *Islam*, the religion started by MOHAMMED THE PROPHET.

Mohammed was born at Mecca in Arabia in the year A.D. 570. Like many Arabs he got his living by trading in camels and sheep,

and made journeys to many parts of Arabia and to Syria in the course of his work. Here he came into touch with Jews and Christians.

He saw that the Arabs were not strong because they were not united. Each tribe had a god of its own and hated all other tribes. When he was about forty years old, Mohammed said that an angel had come to him from God, ordering him to give out a new teaching. It was that there is only One God and that all men must be under His authority. This is *islam* or 'respect for authority'. Mohammed said that the orders of God were given to him by the angel, and he had them put into writing in the book named *The Holy Koran*.

At first the people of Mecca were against him, and he had to take flight to a town nearby, named Medina. This flight, or *Hegira*, which took place in A.D. 622, is taken by Muslims as the starting-point for numbering the years of their history, as the Christians take the birth of Christ for theirs. Little by little, many of the Arabs became supporters of Mohammed, and he got together an army which not only took Mecca, but also forced all the tribes of Arabia to come under his control.

When the Arabs became united under one leader and got the idea of giving their new religion to all men, the growth of their power took place surprisingly quickly. Under Abu Bekr and Omar I, the first and second *Caliphs* (that is the name for leaders who came after Mohammed), the Muslims overcame the armies of the Persian king and the emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire. Within twenty-five years from the death of Mohammed, the third Caliph was ruling over an empire in which were the countries of Egypt, Syria, Mesopotamia and Persia, in addition to all Arabia. Within hardly another hundred years, that is by the year A.D. 750, the Muslims had gone all along the northern coast of Africa, where the Carthaginians had once been, and into Spain; in the east they forced their way into Turkestan, as Alexander had done, and farther than Alexander, into Sind and the Punjab.

They would have gone right into central Europe too, if their armies had not been stopped by the Franks in a great battle at



*Tours* in France in the year A.D. 732, exactly a hundred years after Mohammed's death.

What was the cause of this expansion? From where did the forces of Islam get their power to overcome so many great nations so quickly? First, without doubt, from their own unity and their strong belief that their religion was true and that all men must be made to have the same religion. But there were other reasons too, the chief of which was that men were tired of being forced to work hard and give their money to kings and priests; the teaching of Islam, which said 'every Muslim is the brother to every other Muslim: all Muslims are equal in the sight of God', was very pleasing to such people; and as long as the Muslims continued to act according to that teaching, so long they could not be overcome. But, like all other organizations of men, theirs underwent change as time went on. The Caliphs soon got into the same bad ways as the kings they overthrew; they had the desire more



THE MOSQUE OF ST SOPHIA

for their own power and comforts than for the good of the people under their control. There were disputes and fights between leaders, even between fathers and sons, to get power and to keep it.

But the uniting of so great a part of the world under one rule had some good effects too. Wise Arabs came into touch with the

science of the Greeks and the Hindus; great universities were started at Baghdad, Cairo and Cordoba (in Spain). The making of paper was learned from the Chinese. Specially in mathematics, chemistry, medicine and surgery the Arabs made great and important additions to man's knowledge.

[Key-Question 17 : *What was 'the feudal system' and how did it develop?*]

§ 17. The Franks, who fought against the Muslim invaders of Europe and checked them at the battle of Tours in France in A.D. 732, were the descendants of the barbarian tribes who had invaded the Roman empire hundreds of years before. They had become civilized through contact with the Roman civilization. They learned the Roman language, *Latin*, but they spoke it in a different way of their own, from which the Frankish or French language gradually developed. In just the same way most of the modern Indian languages have developed from Sanskrit, and Sinhalese from Elu. The Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian languages have also developed in the same way from Latin, the language of the Romans.

The Franks were ruled by warlike kings who conquered their neighbours. That is how they became strong enough to stop the invasion of the Muslims. At the end of the eighth century A.D., there was a Frankish king whose empire included the whole of the regions now called France, Germany, Austria and northern Italy. This king was CHARLEMAGNE (which means 'Charles the Great' in the Frankish language). Charlemagne had the idea of reviving the old Roman empire which his ancestors had helped to conquer. He was a Roman Catholic, so in A.D. 800 he got the Pope to crown him in Rome as 'Holy Roman Emperor'. But, like all empires held together by force and fear, Charlemagne's empire fell to pieces very soon after its strong ruler died.

Just at the time when Charlemagne was emperor of western Europe, there was a famous Muslim ruler, the Caliph, HARUN AL RASHID, whose capital city was Baghdad. It was for the



amusement of this king that the famous stories of *The Arabian Nights' Entertainments* were collected and written down. I am sure you have read some of those stories, such as 'Sindbad the Sailor', 'Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves', and 'Aladdin and the Wonderful Lamp'. Baghdad in the reign of Harun al Rashid was a city of luxury and magnificence. But underneath its grand appearance there were misery and poverty and slavery, as in Rome and in Constantinople, and most cities of that time. After Harun's death his empire was broken to pieces by civil war. Then there was another invasion of fierce barbarians from Central Asia, the Turks from Turkestan.

A very similar thing happened in India too. After the break-up of the Gupta empire by the Huns, a strong ruler HARSHAVARDHANA reconquered nearly the whole of India except the southern peninsula. Harsha was a Buddhist, but he was tolerant towards all religions. In his reign the Chinese pilgrim, Yuan-Chwang visited India and wrote an account of his fourteen-year travels. He mentioned that the old capital Pataliputra was in ruins, but Nalanda University was at the height of its fame. Buddhism had changed a great deal. It was a religion full of prayers and ceremonies, very different from the Buddhism of a thousand years before.

China also had a period of civil wars after the collapse of the Han empire. Then a strong ruler came to the throne and order was restored. The period which followed was one of the Golden Ages of China. It was the period of the *Tang* kings, when the Chinese produced the most wonderful pottery and painting. They also discovered gunpowder, and how to use coal and gas for heating, and water for driving machinery. This was many hundreds of years before these discoveries were made in Europe.

In § 1 we learnt that one of the signs of civilization is 'keeping the rules for living together'. After the destruction of the Roman Empire by the barbarian invaders, many centuries passed during which there was no strong government to make people keep the rules. Each man did as he pleased; those who were strong enough to get what they wanted by means of violence and cruelty

did so without fear of punishment. It is not surprising that that period of history is often called 'The Dark Ages'.

'The Dark Ages' of Europe began to come to an end about A.D. 750, when the barbarians had had time to settle down. We have seen how this took place in the case of the Franks. It happened in other parts of Europe also. One of the chief means by which the barbarians were civilized was through the spread of Christianity. In § 14 we learned something about the teachings of Christ. Missionaries, such as St Augustine, spread those teachings even in the most distant countries and among the most barbarous people, without caring for their own safety or comfort.

The period of 500 years from A.D. 750 until A.D. 1250 is often

110439



A CASTLE OF THE MIDDLE AGES

called 'The Middle Ages'. Sometimes it is called 'The Feudal Age', because it was at this time that the 'feudal' system of government spread. 'Feudalism' is a system of government that has usually developed in times of disorder. It arises in this way. When men see that there is no safety from violence and robbery,

AKSHARA GRANTHALAYA





they try to get protection from anyone who is strong enough to protect them. The peasants and craftsmen offer to pay a part of whatever they earn, in food or goods, to a stronger man, who thus becomes their protector or lord. The lord, to defend himself and his land and subjects, builds a strong fort and trains men to fight under him. If there is another lord who is much more powerful, the smaller lords offer to provide him with soldiers and services, if he will protect them in times of danger. That is how, in many parts of the world, forts and castles have been built. We can see their ruins in most countries except the newly settled countries such as America and Australia which have never had to go through the 'feudal' stage of government.

#### EXERCISES

1. How did Islam spread so quickly?
2. Who were the Franks and what did they do?
3. How did the Dark Ages begin to come to an end? How did people protect themselves during these dangerous times?

## 6

### *New Ways to New Knowledge*

#### SECTION 11 : ROGER BACON : MARCO POLO : PRINTING

[Key-Question 18 : *Why did men and women go to monasteries and convents in 'The Dark Ages' and what did they do there?*]

§ 18. In the Dark Ages peace-loving people had a very difficult time. Even in the Middle Ages most people were accustomed to violence; there was no proper police system; those who were unwilling to defend themselves by violence were likely to be robbed or even killed. For this reason many peace-loving men and women went to live in monasteries and convents,<sup>1</sup> or in caves on

<sup>1</sup> Houses for colonies of religious men (monks) and women (nuns).

islands and hills (such as Elephanta, Ellora and Ajanta). Here they were able to carry on their studies and religious practices with less danger of being disturbed.

It was very difficult for anyone who believed in non-violence to live in the ordinary way, so those who felt they must live differently usually became monks. One of these was ST FRANCIS OF ASSISI, the son of a rich Italian merchant. After living in luxury when



ST FRANCIS TALKING TO LABOURERS

he was young, Francis gave up everything, and tried to live in the way he felt Christ would have lived in those days. With a few friends who joined him he spent his life in helping sick and poor people, of whom there were a great number then.

The monks and nuns were not all interested only in religion. As we know from Ajanta and Ellora, some of them were artists in painting and stone-carving. Others were interested in science. One of the first of these, in Europe, was ROGER BACON. He was a monk at Oxford (where the University had just been started) and he spent his whole life in making experiments. About A.D. 1250 he found out how to make gunpowder, and nearly blew



himself up in doing so. No wonder the people of his time believed that Bacon was a magician !



ROGER BACON

At this time people of the Middle East and Asia had reached a higher state of civilization in many ways than people in Europe. So much destruction and confusion had been caused by the break-up of Roman civilization that for nearly 1,000 years it was very dangerous to travel outside one's own country. Very few boys, and hardly any girls, went to school, for the only schools were those of the monasteries. There was no printing: books had to be copied by hand, and they were too costly for poor men. As for the rich, most of them spent their time in hunting and other violent enjoyments, whenever they were not busy fighting.

But between A.D. 1100 and 1300 many of the fighting noblemen joined in the wars known as the Crusades.<sup>1</sup> The Crusades

<sup>1</sup> Crusade means a 'fight for the Cross'. The Cross is the emblem of the Christian religion, because Jesus Christ was killed by being nailed to a cross of wood.

took place because the Muslims had conquered the land of Palestine. Palestine was a sacred land to all Christians, because it was the place in which Jesus Christ was born and lived and died. Again and again the Christians tried to reconquer Palestine : the kings of all the principal countries of Europe brought their armies and combined to fight for it.

There were seven Crusades in the 200 years from A.D. 1096 to 1270, and it was during those Crusades that many of the fighting-men of western Europe had their first chance of travelling to the east, and of seeing the civilization of other peoples. This was a real education for them, and from that time the desire to travel and to trade with foreign peoples began to increase.

The great Muslim empire of the Middle East, which prevented the Crusaders from reconquering Palestine, was one of the bridges joining the East and the West together. In the time of the great Turkish Caliph, SALADIN, the Muslim empire extended from Spain and North Africa as far as Turkestan and Sind. Across that bridge new knowledge of mathematics, chemistry and medicine came to Europe from the Muslim universities.

[Key-Question 19 : *What did the Khan emperors do, and how do we know about them?*]

§ 19. At the very same time another bridge was made, joining China to the western world. That bridge was the *Empire of the Great Khans*, across which the Moguls (Mongols) also came to India.

About A.D. 1200 JENGHIS KHAN invaded China. He learned the use of gunpowder from the Chinese, and with its help his fierce horsemen quickly overcame anyone who opposed them. The greater part of Asia, except India and Indo-China, was conquered; then the Mongols invaded the Middle East and Russia. The empire of the greatest of the Khan emperors, KUBLAI KHAN, stretched from the Pacific Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea (see map on page 56). Its capital was Peking.

Soon after Kublai Khan became emperor, two merchants of Venice happened to be on a trading journey in the Black Sea. In



south Russia they met some of Kublai Khan's officers, who invited them to go to China for a visit. The journey by land right across central Asia took many months, but the travellers reached Peking safely, and were welcomed by the Khan emperor. He sent them back to Venice safely, with a request to return for another visit.



The merchants accepted the invitation, and when they returned to Peking they took with them their younger brother, MARCO POLO.

Marco lived in China for 24 years and became a trusted officer of the Great Khan, who made him Governor of one of the Chinese cities, and a member of his own Council. In the end, Marco and his brothers returned to Venice. The story is that when they got back after so long an absence, no one recognized them, and even when they had proved who they really were, no one would believe the stories they told about their adventures in China. They invited their friends to a feast, and when the meal was over, they had their Mongol clothes brought in, and showed how thickly the lining was padded with wool for warmth in the winter. Cutting open the lining—lo! a stream of valuable jewels of all kinds poured out.

After that, people listened eagerly to the stories Marco told about China's wonderful civilization. In fact, he was so fond of telling what a wonderful country it is, with its millions of people and millions of everything, that he came to be known by his friends as 'Marco Milione'—Marco the Million-man!

Marco Polo afterwards told all his adventures to a friend who wrote them down in a book called *The Travels of Marco Polo, the Venetian*. That book not only tells us many interesting things about the empire of the Great Khan, and how people lived in China at that time, but it also shows that the people of Europe were beginning to want to travel again and to trade with countries far away.

It was in the countries around the Mediterranean Sea that the desire for travel and for trade arose earliest and most strongly, for they were the European countries nearest to the civilized East. In Shakespeare's play *The Merchant of Venice* Shylock says that Antonio (the merchant) 'hath an argosy (i.e. a fleet of ships) bound to Tripoli, another to the Indies, a third to Mexico, and a fourth to England'. Venice was only one of the important trading cities in the eleventh to fifteenth centuries: others were Genoa, Florence and Milan, all of which you will read about later in this book.

[Key-Question 20: *How did people in Western Europe get more books?*]

§ 20. Trade brings wealth, and wealth brings leisure to those who possess it. The increase of wealth and leisure gave the people of those Italian cities more chance to travel and more time to read. But what could they read? There were very few books. All books had to be written by hand. What a slow and costly business!

The ancient city of Rome had, long before, been the capital of the Roman Empire. It had been destroyed by the invasions of the Huns and other barbarians, and the ruins of Roman buildings could be seen in Rome (and they can still be seen). In many places in Italy there were old Latin books (Latin is the name of the old Roman language), and there were great libraries of old



Greek books in Constantinople. So the people of Italy began to search for the old Greek and Latin books. They found many of them, and from the reading of those books the desire for more and more knowledge increased.

There is a well-known saying : 'Where there's a will, there's a way.' The will to get more knowledge soon caused men to find the way to it. When they wanted to make books quickly, they found out a way to do it. First, they learned to make *paper*, and then they invented the art of *printing*.



AN EARLY PRINTING PRESS

The making of paper was one of the things which the Europeans learned from the Arabs. The Arabs themselves had learned it from the Chinese, whom they had opportunities to meet in the course of trade in the countries around the Indian Ocean.

Printing from movable types was invented in Europe about A.D. 1450, long after it had been done in China; but so far we know, the invention (like that of gunpowder by Bacon) was a separate one, not copied from the Chinese. The first printing-



presses were in Holland and Germany; from Germany the art was brought to England by WILLIAM CAXTON. Both these inventions were very important for spreading knowledge. Books could be made in very large numbers, and much more cheaply, through the making of paper and the invention of printing. Thus many people could have them, and this made the spread of education much easier.

Another thing happened about this time which also caused the spread of education. Some people known as the Ottoman Turks invaded Asia Minor, and in 1453 they took the great city of Constantinople (now called Istanbul). Constantinople<sup>1</sup> had been the capital of the eastern part of the Roman empire for hundreds of years, and it had many fine libraries of Greek and Roman books, and many schools and colleges. The Turks were Muslims, and the scholars of Constantinople, who belonged to the Christian religion, were afraid that they would be killed by the Turks when the city was taken by force. So they left Constantinople before it was taken, carrying with them their most valuable books. They fled to other parts of Europe. Many went to Italy, some to France and Germany, and some to England. Here they set up schools in order to earn their living. Some became professors in the Universities which were started about that time in several cities of Italy, and at Paris, Oxford, Cambridge, Prague<sup>2</sup> and Heidelberg.<sup>3</sup>

The spread of knowledge through the coming of these scholars, and through the printing of the books which they brought with them, and which they wrote, helped the people of western Europe now to become much more civilized than they had been before. The growth of knowledge made men want more and more knowledge. They wanted to discover more about the world; and when they heard of the discovery of new lands, they wanted to know about the things and people of those lands. They began to want to live in a better way. They wanted to make and to possess beautiful things, fine clothes, books, pictures, and so on.

<sup>1</sup> See Section 8. <sup>2</sup> Pronounced 'Prah-g'. <sup>3</sup> Pronounced 'Hy-del-berg'.



These are two of the ways, you see, which Mr Joad mentioned as leading to civilization: *thinking new things* and *making beautiful things*. But in the two other ways the people of Europe had a great deal still to learn. They had not learned to allow each other to *think freely*. And they had not learned to *keep the rules of living together peacefully*.

Now we shall hear about a great man who was one of those who led the way in 'thinking new things' and in 'making beautiful things'. His name was LEONARDO DA VINCI.<sup>1</sup>

#### EXERCISES

1. Mention some famous monks of the Middle Ages, and what they did.
2. Why were the people of Europe backward at this time? What events helped them to gain more knowledge?
3. Read more about Marco Polo's travels and give a short account of them.

### SECTION 12 : LEONARDO DA VINCI

[Key-Question 21 : *In what ways was Leonardo da Vinci a great and extraordinary man?*]

§ 21. Leonardo was born in 1452 in the little town of Vinci near Florence in Italy. When he was a boy, he was interested in all sorts of hobbies, particularly painting, and one day his father showed some of the boy's drawings to a friend who was an artist. The artist at once invited Leonardo to become his pupil. For seven years Leonardo worked under him and soon learned all that the master could teach. At the age of twenty he was one of the best artists of the city of Florence.

But he was not satisfied to be famous as an artist only. He was already thinking out plans for various kinds of machinery, for bridges and canals, for guns and other improved weapons, for rebuilding towns, and even for making aeroplanes. Most of these were things which a private person could not afford, so Leonardo was on the look-out to find a rich man to help him, some prince or ruler who wanted to have these improvements in his State. For a year or two he worked for the ruler of Florence. Then an offer

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'Lay-on-ar-do dah Vin-chee'.

was made to him by the Duke of Milan, and he entered the Duke's service when he was about thirty years of age.

Italy at that time was not under one ruler; it did not become a united nation till long afterwards. In Leonardo's time it was divided into a number of States, each one with its own ruler or duke. Fortunately the rulers were often rivals not in war only but also in beautifying their chief towns.

So Leonardo went to Milan. The first thing that he was asked to do by his new employer was to make a great statue of the uncle of the Duke on horseback. Leonardo was determined to do this work perfectly. He therefore spent several years in making a special study of the bodies both of men and horses. Then he made drawings of parts of the statue and finally a model of the whole; but when it was almost finished he became dissatisfied with it, and began all over again. It was not until 1493, nearly ten years after he entered the service of the Duke, that he finished it. It was of huge size, being no less than twenty-six feet high. Sad to say, it was not made of metal; and when, a few years later,



LEONARDO PAINTING 'THE LAST SUPPER'

Milan fell into the hands of enemies of the Duke, the great model was first damaged, and then completely destroyed.



But during those remaining years in Milan Leonardo did other wonderful work. When plague broke out in the city, which was very unhealthy, he made plans to rebuild it on modern lines. The work for which he is most famous of all was begun in 1494; that was his great wall-painting of 'The Last Supper'. Just as in Ajanta the Buddhist monks have painted the walls of their monastery with pictures of scenes from the life of their great teacher, so in Italy the Christian monks used to have scenes from the life of Christ painted on the walls and ceilings of churches and monasteries; and the richer monasteries often employed the most famous artists to do these. Leonardo was asked to make on the wall of the monks' dining-hall a great picture showing the Last Supper which Christ had with his twelve apostles before he was arrested by the Romans. Leonardo took four years to complete this picture. Unhappily, just as in the case of the Ajanta paintings, the weather has damaged the wall on which it was made, and it is no longer perfect. But even as it is, it is one of the greatest paintings ever made by man.

Leonardo then went to Venice, and took up mathematical studies, and also interested himself in geography. He wanted to find out how to use the tides of the sea to make power for machinery. Soon after this, he painted another of the pictures which have made him world-famous—the wonderful portrait of the Lady Lisa. A few days after it was finished, this picture was seen by the king of France, Francis I, who liked it so much that he bought it, and it is still in the Louvre Museum in Paris. The king became so fond of Leonardo that he invited him to spend the remainder of his life in France. Leonardo was by this time over 60 years old, and he accepted the offer. He spent the last three years of his life peacefully but busily (for he was a man whose mind could never stop working) in a castle which his royal friend kept for his use. Even during the last year of his life he was busy with plans for a new palace for the king, and for a great canal to join two important rivers of France. He died in 1519.

Great men are often so busy with their own thoughts and plans

that they have no time or interest for ordinary things. Leonardo da Vinci was not like that. He was lovable and fond of society. When he was young he was noted for his good looks and strong healthy body; he had golden hair and such strong hands that he could bend an iron horse-shoe as if it had been made of lead. He liked horses very much, and was a splendid rider. He loved birds, and when he passed shops where birds were kept for sale in cages, he used to pay the price asked for the birds, and set them free. Though he used sometimes to go away alone by himself and spend days in thought or on some work that he had in hand, yet when he joined the company of others, he was the merriest of companions. He was always ready to give pleasure to others, by singing or taking part in theatricals and other entertainments. One of the last things he did in his life was to direct the entertainments at the marriage of the eldest son of his friend the French king. So great and clever a man might have been proud; but Leonardo, though he knew what great powers he possessed, used them throughout his whole life with such kindness towards others that he made only friends.

From the study of the notes and drawings which were found after Leonardo's death, modern engineers believe that if he had been able to use some power like petrol, he would have been able to invent the aeroplane 350 years ago. He also knew a method of remaining a long time under the water, but he refused to tell it to anyone, 'because of the evil nature of man'.

Leonardo was so far in advance of his time that even now we are only just arriving at the point where his search for knowledge ended.

#### EXERCISES

1. Why was it impossible for Leonardo to make an aeroplane which could fly?
2. What advantages did Leonardo have in A.D. 1500 which Roger Bacon could not have in A.D. 1250?
3. What great work is Leonardo famous for?



## New Ways to New Worlds

### SECTION 13 : THE MARINERS' COMPASS<sup>1</sup>

[Key-Question 22 : *How did 'The Mariners' Compass' come to Europe and how was it very useful then ?*]

§ 22. Look at the diagram (p. 65). It shows the Eastern Hemisphere of our world—that is, all the world except the two Americas. But you will see that it is not shown as in an ordinary map. The hemisphere is cut into blocks. One big block is the Mongol Empire, made up of what is now China, with a good deal of Siberia, South Russia, Iran and Asia Minor. Then there is India. A third block is the Muslim Empire of the Middle East (Arabia, Egypt, Turkey, North Africa). The fourth block is Western Europe and European Russia. The last is all the remaining part of Africa, which is very faintly shown because almost nothing was then known about it.

This diagram shows all the parts of the world which had been heard of by educated people in Asia and Europe 700 years ago, about the year A.D. 1250. The various parts are shown just touching each other at a few points. Why? Because it was like that. The people of the different parts of the world could hardly ever meet. The people who lived in one block did not know anything about those who lived in other blocks, except when a brave traveller, or perhaps a merchant or two, dared to cross from one block to another. Even when that happened, the traveller or merchant could be seen only by a very few people and could tell them very little about his own country because of the difference of language. So there was very little knowledge of other parts of the world. The people in each block no doubt thought that *they* were the only civilized people in the world !

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'kum-pus'.

But, in spite of these difficulties, brave men did go from one block to another, from time to time. And it was due to this that



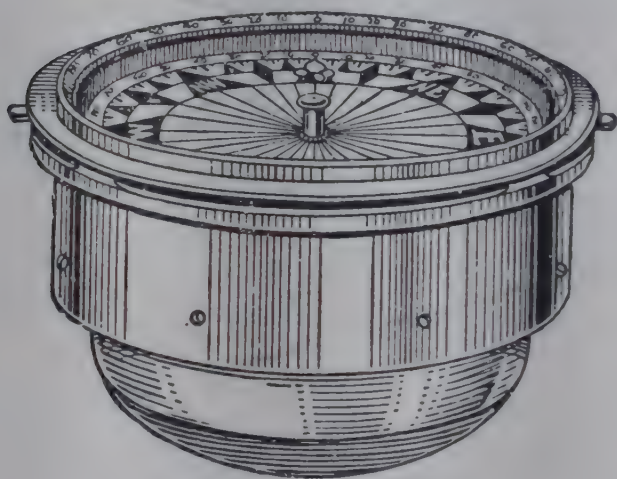
THE WORLD IN A.D. 1250

some very important inventions, made by the clever people in one or other of the blocks, were carried to people in distant blocks, who made even greater use of them.

The first of these inventions was THE MARINERS' COMPASS,—that is, the compass used by sailors or seamen. You all know what a compass is. It is a little bit of iron or steel, which has the power (when allowed to turn freely, as when floated on water or balanced on a central pivot) to point north and south. It gets that strange



power from a special sort of stone, called 'loadstone' (which means 'leading' or 'pointing' stone). This stone is really magnetic-iron and it is dug out of the earth. If any bit of ordinary iron is rubbed with a piece of loadstone it will also become a magnet; it will draw very small pieces of iron (such as pins or needles) towards it; and it will point to the north and south when allowed to turn freely. I will not try to explain here *why* it points to the north and south. You must ask your science teacher or your geography teacher to explain that to you. You should also make a compass of your own, by magnetizing a steel needle and fixing it on a thin piece of thread so that it may turn to the north. Or you can float it on the surface of a cup of water on a thin bit of oiled paper. This was probably the way in which the Chinese first used it.



A COMPASS

So it was the Chinese who invented the compass? Well, nobody can be quite certain of that. But it seems most probable that it was so. They certainly sailed their ships as far as India (block No. 2) with the help of the *ting-nan-ching* which means 'the needle pointing south'. And it was the Arab traders (of block No. 3) who learned about

'the needle pointing south' from them. The Arabs brought this valuable knowledge to the West, and it was from them that the Italians (of block No. 4) learned about it. From them it spread all over western Europe. So you see how 'thinking new things' in one part of the world was carried to another part about 700 years ago.

I do not mean to say that this was the first time that anyone from one block had visited another. Of course, that is not so. But such visits were at very long intervals. It is only during the last 500 years that the peoples of the various blocks have begun to mix more freely and frequently. And that has been made

possible through inventions such as the mariners' compass. Now let us see what use was made of it by the travellers in the fifteenth century (i.e. between A.D. 1400 and 1500).

In § 20 you learned how the Ottoman Turks began to invade Asia Minor and other countries of the eastern Mediterranean. They were Muslims and they did not wish to be friends with the traders of western countries whose religion was Christianity. They therefore stopped European merchants from sailing their ships in the eastern Mediterranean and from carrying on trade with Arab merchants who brought things from India.

This was a great loss to the merchants of Europe, for India was ahead of Europe at that time in making beautiful cotton and silk cloth; and rich people in Europe wanted to buy these, as well as spices (such as ginger, chillies, cinnamon and cloves, which cannot be grown in a cold climate). So, naturally, the shipmen of Europe began to think of finding another way to reach India.

A new discovery pointed the way. It was really an old discovery which had been forgotten for a long time. The Greek geographer Eratosthenes who lived more than 1600 years before (about 200 B.C.) had proved that the world was not flat but spherical (like a ball). His writings had been re-discovered by the scholars of Greek, and men began to wonder whether it might be possible to go to India by sailing round the globe *westwards*, now that the Muslims stopped them from going by the eastern way.

The people who most wanted to do this were, naturally, those whose trade had been upset most—the men of Genoa and Venice (the great ports of northern Italy), of Portugal and Spain, and, later on, those of Holland and the British Isles. This was how CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a shipman of Genoa, had the idea of reaching India, China and Japan, by sailing to the *west*.

#### EXERCISES

1. Describe a Mariners' Compass and how it works.
2. What events caused the traders of Europe to try to discover new sea routes?
3. What forgotten discovery of the ancient Greeks encouraged men to travel?



## SECTION 14

### COLUMBUS : VASCO DA GAMA : MAGELLAN

[Key-Question 23 : *What new lands were discovered by Columbus ?*]

§ 23. Columbus was a poor man, and his only hope of having a ship big enough to sail on the stormy Atlantic Ocean was by getting the help of a rich and powerful person. But nobody would listen to his idea of sailing westwards to China. They thought it foolish. In the end he managed to persuade the King and Queen of Spain to give him three small ships. The largest of them was the *Santa Maria* of only 100 tons; it could carry 52 men; the smallest was of 40 tons and had a crew of 18. Think what this



THE 'SANTA MARIA'

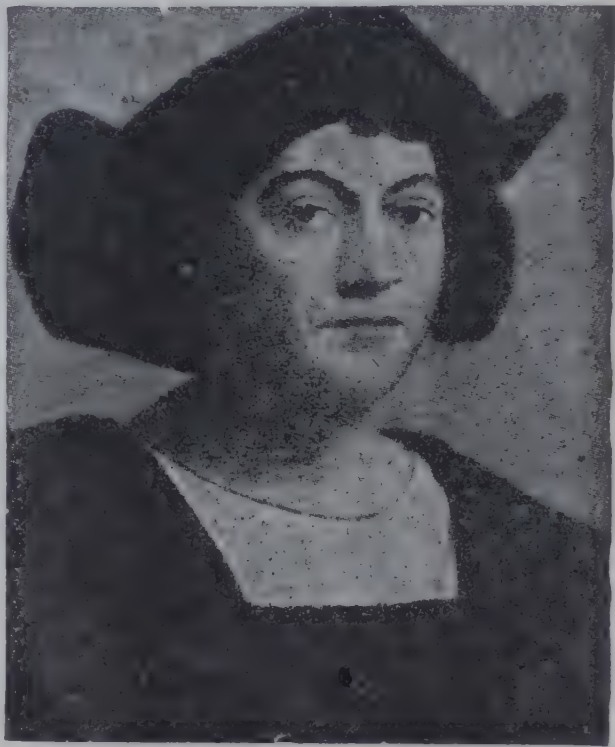
means. We now use ships of 20,000, 40,000 and even 80,000 tons. They are sometimes more than 1,000 feet in length, that is nearly a quarter of a mile from end to end. Columbus's biggest ship was 65 feet long, less than the length of a cricket-pitch !

He set sail from Spain in August 1492, and sailed on for two months, westwards across the Atlantic, without seeing any sign of land. After more than a month Columbus's men began to get frightened;

they had seen stars falling into the sea (meteors); the ship came to a place where the sea was thickly covered with sea-weed (the Sargasso Sea). The men wanted to turn back home. They began to threaten their captain. But in October some green branches and a piece of wood were seen floating on the sea. They knew that land must be near. During the night Columbus

himself saw a light in the distance. How excited they must all have been! Next morning land was in sight. Was it India, China or Japan?

They landed, carrying the flag of Spain. Of course, it was not really part of India, China or Japan. It was an island of the Bahama group. You will find it in your atlas marked as Watling Island, in the West Indies. 'The *West Indies*!' That name shows where Columbus thought he had arrived—India. He found that the inhabitants were of a reddish-brown colour, so he called them 'Red Indians'. And when it was proved that the 'Indies' were not part of India at all, they were called the 'West Indies', as the other Indies were known as the 'East Indies'.



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

After staying for a few months, and discovering some neighbouring islands (but not the mainland of America), Columbus set sail for Spain again. He arrived safely in February 1493, bringing with him, as presents to the King of Spain, gold, cotton, some birds and animals unknown to Europe, and two 'Red Indians', to prove that he had really reached his goal.

The Spanish king was now very willing to give him more ships and men for other such voyages. He sailed the very same year with 17 ships and more than 1,500 men, with animals and materials for setting up a colony in the new land. This time the voyage was made in less than six weeks.

Columbus landed his colonists on Hispaniola ('Little Spain') island, now called Haiti. He himself went on to discover more places. He never reached the mainland of North America, but



he explored most of the islands now called the Greater Antilles. When he got back to Hispaniola after nearly a year, he found the colony in a bad condition. The people chosen for it were not of the right sort. They were ignorant and greedy, and had begun to behave very badly to the Indians with the result that there was a rebellion. It was put down by force. And then a very bad thing was done: five shiploads of Indians were sent to Spain to be sold as slaves.

Meanwhile Columbus sailed back to Spain, and in 1498 again set out on his third voyage. On this occasion he went farther towards the south-west. He discovered the island which he named Trinidad, and then sailed along the coast of South America to the mouth of the great river Orinoco. The great quantity of water poured out into the sea by this river showed clearly that it must be a *very* big one, and not just an island stream. Columbus began to understand that he had discovered a new continent.

The great explorer was now over 50 years old, but he could not rest. In 1502 he set out again on the voyage which was to be his last one. He reached the West Indies, then went on to Jamaica, and finally just touched the shores of Central America where Honduras now is. He thought he had reached the country of the Great Khan (China). But he was to see no more of it, for storms drove his ships away from the land, and after much disappointment and difficulty he got back to Spain in 1504, worn out. Two years later he died.

[Key-Question 24 : *What was discovered by Vasco da Gama and by Magellan ?*]

§ 24. Another great explorer who went on his travels at about the same time as Columbus was VASCO DA GAMA, a man of Portugal. Setting out from Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, Vasco sailed his four ships right along the west coast of Africa till he reached the Cape of Good Hope. From there he found that the coast began to bend eastwards, and he followed it on and on, east and then north, until he reached Malindi (just north of

where Mombasa now stands, in Kenya). There he met Indian merchants and, with the help of a pilot lent by them, da Gama then sailed his ships right across the Indian Ocean to Malabar, landing at Calicut, where he met the ruling prince, or Zamorin, of Calicut. Da Gama got back safely to Lisbon in 1499, after having been away for more than two years. This voyage was a very important one because it was the beginning of other visits to India by the Portuguese. It is sad to have to say that on his second visit with a fleet of ten big ships he behaved with great cruelty to the people of



VASCO DA GAMA AT CALICUT

Calicut, in revenge for the killing of some Portuguese who had been left behind earlier. He visited India a third time in 1524, and died in the same year at Cochin.

Less important, perhaps, but more interesting than the voyage of da Gama was that of another Portuguese, FERDINAND MAGELLAN, the first man whose ship sailed right round the world. In 1519, Magellan set out on his great adventure. He had five ships with him. He had made up his mind to reach India by sailing round the world to the south of America. From Portugal, Magellan sailed across the Atlantic Ocean until he reached the coast of Brazil. Going along the coast he reached the mouth of the great river La Plata. He went into the estuary, hoping to



find that it was a passage through America into the Indian Ocean. Of course he was disappointed. Then he sailed south and spent the winter on the coast of a country whose people are very tall and had big feet. He called them Patagonians, which means 'Big Feet'. When the winter was over he sailed on, and at last arrived at the strait which is now named after him, the Strait of Magellan. It took him more than a month to sail through, for it is a very dangerous place, full of rocky islands, and the wind is usually from the west. At last he entered the great western ocean. It was so calm at that time that Magellan named it the Pacific (peaceful) Ocean.

Now he was on the widest ocean in the whole world. He sailed across it for more than three months, seeing only two small islands on the way. Food and water ran short. At last the men had nothing left to eat but the rats which lived in the ship. But, just in time, they came to an island, which was probably the island now called Guam. The people were so wonder-

struck to see the strange visitors that they came on to the ship and took away articles belonging to Magellan and his men. From this he named the islands the Ladrone (robber) islands, and you will see that name on the map. Westward still they sailed, reaching the islands now nam-



THE 'VICTORIA'

ed the Philippines. They made friends with the king of Cebu island, but this was a most unfortunate thing. The king asked his new friends to help him to conquer a neighbouring island, and in doing so Magellan was killed. After some time Magellan's men went away with three out of four ships. Two were lost,

and only the *Victoria* managed to sail on, to Borneo and then right across the Indian Ocean to Africa, down the coast to the Cape (for there was no Suez Canal at that time), and so at last northwards back to Portugal. Magellan's ship *Victoria*, but without its brave captain, had sailed right round the world !

## EXERCISES

1. What difficulties prevented people in olden times from travelling to see distant parts of the world?
2. What good things and what bad things resulted from Columbus's voyage ?
3. Which was the more important event, Magellan's voyage round the world, or Vasco da Gama's visit to India? Give reasons for your answer.

## 8

*The Struggle for Free Thought*

## SECTION 15 :

## TOLERANCE : THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

[Key-Question 25 : *What is 'tolerance' and why is it important for civilization ?*]

§ 25. The civilizations which grew up, long, long ago, on the banks of the great rivers—the Nile (Egypt), the Euphrates-Tigris (Sumeria), the Indus and perhaps the Ganges (India), the Yangtze Kiang (China)—were all civilizations in which men produced great 'works of art' ; that is, made beautiful things.

In those ancient civilizations men also learned to 'keep the rules'. At first, no doubt, they were forced by fear of punishment to keep the rules made by their leaders or kings. But, in time, they began to see that they could live more happily and peacefully if everyone kept certain rules even without being forced to do so. It was a hard lesson to learn, and we have not all learned it yet, otherwise we should not have war.

In some ways, too, men began to 'think new things' in those days of long ago. There were great discoveries and inventions, such as the use of fire, tools of many kinds, the wheel (a wonderful



invention, surely), the discovery of metals and their use, and so on. We do not know who invented or discovered these things. Such discoveries took place very rarely, and at very long intervals. Many were made by the Chinese and the Indians, and many more by the Greeks who, beyond all the ancient peoples, were always asking 'why?' and 'how?', and trying to find the answers.

Thus, three out of the four 'factors of civilization' can be found in several of the ancient civilizations; but what about the fourth? Let us examine it for a few minutes. *Thinking freely*—what does it mean, and why is it important for the growth of civilization?

It means that people should be free to get knowledge—by hearing any teacher, by reading any book, by discussion with others—and should not be forced to accept any ideas merely because the king or the government or any other powerful person believes those ideas to be true. This kind of freedom is called *tolerance* and it is very important, for Man's mind cannot grow fully without it. But it has taken men a very, very long time to understand this, and even now there are many people who do not understand it, and much trouble and suffering is the result.

It is usually in matters of religion that people are not tolerant, because religion is a thing which many people believe to be very important. Those who belong to a particular religion often believe that that religion alone is right and all other religions are wrong. They are therefore intolerant of other religions, and sometimes try to interfere with people who believe in those religions, and even to force them to change their religion through fear of punishment or death. You have probably read about kings who tried to do this in India or in other countries. Generally, India and China have been ahead of other countries in tolerance, but even Indians have not *always* been so.

There are other things, besides religion, about which men are sometimes intolerant. Try to find out what they are. But religion is the thing about which people have most commonly been intolerant. In the lesson which follows, we shall see how people in Europe struggled to have freedom in religion; but, after getting

it for themselves, they made the terrible mistake of refusing it to others who did not agree with them. If you want to be free to think for yourself, you must give the same freedom to others. That seems perfectly clear. But it was not easy to learn. And we shall now see how the people of Europe, who struggled for free thought, fought amongst themselves, and went on fighting and doing harm to each other, until at last they learned tolerance. But, before they learned it, millions of people had to die in the struggle.

[Key-Question 26 : *Who is the Pope and what is the Catholic Church ?*]

§ 26. Most of the great religions have a holy book, which is believed to contain the commands of God, or rules for worshipping Him, or how to behave, and so on. The holy book of the Christians is called the Bible.

Christ was born a Jew, and lived in Palestine which at that time was ruled by the Romans, whose chief city was Rome. When the Christian religion began to spread, it was taken to Rome, and after some time the Bishop (the chief priest) of Rome became the head of the Christian religion. He was called 'Papa' or 'Pope' (which means 'Father'). The people who accepted the Christian religion under the Pope's leadership were called *Roman Catholics*. One of their beliefs was that the Pope was appointed by God and that all Christians should therefore obey him.

The Bible of the Christians was partly written in the language of Palestine (the Jewish language, Hebrew) and partly in Greek; but it was translated into Latin, the language of the Romans, by order of the Pope. Latin became the language of the Roman Catholic Church, just as Sanskrit is the language used by Hindus for worship and Arabic by Muslims. Now, just as Sanskrit is only known by learned men, who in the past were usually priests, so Latin was known only to the learned people in Europe in A.D. 1400. Most of the people of Europe at that time not only did not know Latin, but they were quite uneducated; they could not read or write any language at all.



They could not read the Bible for themselves, therefore: they had to take the help of the Roman Catholic priests, both to read the Bible for them and to tell them what was in it. This gave great power to the priests, for every good Christian believed that whatever was written in the Bible was the word of God. Therefore, if the priests said that such-and-such a thing was written in the Bible, it had to be accepted and obeyed.

Things went on well enough so long as the priests were good men. But in 1400 years it would be surprising if none of the priests, or even of the Popes, had been bad men. There were, of course, some bad ones, and it was through some of their actions that trouble began. I will not tell you here exactly what happened: you can learn that when you are older, if you want to know. But, anyhow, some orders were given by one of the Popes which seemed to some Catholics to be quite wrong. How could they decide? They decided to read the Bible for themselves, and to see whether in their own opinion, the order of the Pope was according to the Bible or not.

## SECTION 16 :

### JOHN WYCLIFFE: MARTIN LUTHER: THE JESUITS

[Key-Question 27 : *What was Protestantism and why did it lead to war?*]

§27. One of the first to do this was JOHN WYCLIFFE, an English priest. To help those not knowing Latin to read or to hear and understand the Bible for themselves, he translated it into English. This was a very important step towards giving men the right to free thought in religion. Wycliffe's example was followed by JOHN HUSS, a scholar of Prague (the capital of the country now called Czechoslovakia), who suffered a terrible death for this. He was ordered by his Catholic judges to say

publicly that the Pope's orders must be obeyed as the orders of God. He refused to say this, and, as a punishment, he was tied by chains to a wooden post and burned alive. But even this terrible punishment did not stop the ideas of Wycliffe and Huss from spreading, and presently there were many people who—some openly and many secretly—read the Bible for themselves. Some of them were brave enough to protest against (that is, to speak against) the things they thought to be wrong in the Roman Catholic religion. They therefore came to be known as *Protestants*, and the religion they followed is called Protestant Christianity.

The most famous of all these Protestants was a monk of Germany, called MARTIN LUTHER. Luther openly spoke and wrote against the teachings of the Pope, and he would no doubt have suffered the same fate as John Huss if he had not had powerful people to protect him. For, by this time (about 1520, when Leonardo da Vinci had just died and Magellan was on his way round the world), even the kings and noblemen of

Europe had also begun to take an interest in this 'new thought'. I am sorry to say that in many cases it was not because they were really interested in new thought about religion. The real reason was that some kings (such as King Henry VIII of England) were jealous of the Pope's power to interfere in religious affairs in all countries where Roman Catholic Christianity was the religion. Many such kings supported the Protestants against the Pope. Others supported the Pope. Thus, England and Scotland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and the northern part of Germany became Protestant countries, because their kings took the side of the Protestants against the Pope. On the other hand, France, Spain,



MARTIN LUTHER



Italy, Austria and south Germany took the Pope's side. It was this division which led to the terrible 'religious' wars which went on in northern Europe for nearly a hundred years. Germany, in particular, suffered very badly. Most of the princes and nobles of northern Germany took the Protestant side, while those of the south were Catholics. They fought each other savagely in the name of religion. Towns and villages were destroyed by both sides and tens of thousands of people were killed. Fields went out of cultivation for want of men to work on them. Famine and disease spread and killed hundreds of thousands more. And when one side or the other conquered, what did it prove? Did it prove that the Catholic religion was true or the Protestant religion untrue, or vice versa? Of course not. It only proved which side had the best armed and best trained soldiers, or the most skilful leaders. It did not lead to 'thinking freely'. In fact, it often led to just the opposite. For those who won the battles thought they had the right to force their defeated enemies to change their religion. Thus *intolerance* was the real conqueror.

[Key-Question 28 : *Who started the Society of Jesus and why? What have the Jesuits done?*]

§ 28. We must end this chapter by telling about a man who really tried to get rid of the bad things which had grown up inside the Roman Catholic Church, without destroying the Church itself. He was a young nobleman of Spain, later known as SAINT IGNATIUS OF LOYOLA. When Ignatius was a young man, he was a brave soldier and took part in the wars. His legs were badly broken by a cannon ball, and it was thought that he would die. But he got well slowly, and during the months he had to spend in bed, a great 'new thought' took shape in his mind. He decided to do something to help the Roman Catholic religion which he believed was the true religion. Though a nobleman, he had had no real education, and first, he decided, he must be thoroughly educated. So when he was cured, he joined the University. After many years of study, when he was 47 years old, Ignatius founded

the ' Society of Jesus ', whose members are now known as Jesuits. The Jesuits made a promise that they would spend the whole of their lives in work for the Roman Catholic Church. One of the chief ways in which they worked was in opening good schools, and to this very day the Jesuits schools are noted for their thoroughness. Thousands of Jesuits went out to distant countries to convert the peoples of those countries to Catholic Christianity. They have undoubtedly done great and unselfish work for their religion. Long after his death Ignatius was declared by the Pope to be a holy man or ' saint '. He is therefore known as Saint Ignatius of Loyola. He lived at about the same time as Luther.

ST FRANCIS XAVIER, one of the companions of St Ignatius, came to India in 1543, and made many converts in the southern part of the peninsula. He travelled even to Japan. One of his disciples, with the same name, visited north Ceylon and converted many of the people of the Mannar district to Roman Catholicism.

#### EXERCISES

1. What is tolerance? Is it important for the growth of civilization? Give reasons for your answer.
2. Why did the spread of Protestantism result in cruelty and war?
3. Read something more about Martin Luther and Saint Ignatius of Loyola and write a short life of each of them and the work they did.

## 9

### *Europe Stretches East and West*

#### SECTION 17 :

#### THE PORTUGUESE : CORTEZ : PIZARRO

[Key-Question 29 : *Where did the Portuguese set up trading-stations?*]

§ 29. Men like Columbus, Vasco da Gama, and Magellan went out on long and dangerous voyages because they wanted to discover unknown parts of the world. But there were others who travelled to distant lands for a different reason: they wanted to trade and grow rich.



We must not forget that, at this time—about A.D. 1500—countries like China and India were ahead of the European countries in many ways.



BLUE AND WHITE MING JAR

The Mongol empire did not last long after the death of the great Kublai Khan (the emperor whom Marco Polo served), but the Mongols were followed by able rulers called the Mings, in whose time the Chinese made their most beautiful pottery as well as the finest silk, and a great deal of good sculpture (the carving of wood, ivory, metal and stone). It was a

difficult time for northern India, for the Afghans had by now conquered many of the Rajput kingdoms. But, in spite of such disturbances, Indian craftsmen made the finest cotton cloth in the world, and Europeans wanted to buy this, as well as other luxuries not found in Europe, such as spices.

The Portuguese were the first Europeans to have trading stations in India. When Vasco da Gama reached Calicut in 1498, he found that the ruler was a Hindu prince known as the *Zamorin*, but most of the trade was carried on by Muslims. The Portuguese knew there were Muslims in Morocco (the country in the north-west corner of Africa, opposite Portugal), so they called the Muslim traders by the same name as the Muslims of Morocco, i.e. *Moors*. That is why the Muslims of Ceylon are still called 'Moors', though they have actually no connexion with Morocco.

The Muslim traders were carrying on a big business in silk from China and spices from the East Indies and Ceylon. They sold them in the ports of the Mediterranean. They bought cotton cloth and opium in India, and sold them in Ceylon, the East Indies, and China. The word *cambaya* is still used in Ceylon for a strong cloth brought originally from Cambay (in Gujerat) by Muslim traders.

The chief aims of the Portuguese in the east were to capture the trade of the Muslims and to spread their own religion, Roman Catholic Christianity. The Zamorin would not let the Portuguese stay at Calicut, so they went a little farther down the coast to Cochin, whose ruler was an enemy of the Zamorin. There they built a fort and made it their headquarters. Cochin has a fine natural harbour in which the Portuguese ships could shelter safely. From Cochin they attacked the Muslim trading-ships.

But the Portuguese Governor, Albuquerque, was not satisfied with this. He determined to capture the Muslim trading-centres. First he took Ormuz, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, through which the Muslims had to take their goods on the way to Basra, Baghdad and Asia Minor. Then he took Socotra, an island in the Gulf of Aden, guarding the entrance to the Red Sea through which goods had to be taken to Egypt. In 1510 he captured the island of *Goa* which, ever since, has been the chief centre of Portuguese trade in the east. In 1511 he captured Malacca, which was the Muslim centre of trade in the East Indies. From then, for more than 100 years, the Portuguese extended their trade along both coasts of India, in the coastal regions of Ceylon, in the East Indies, and even to South China.

The Portuguese first landed in Ceylon in 1505. They were trying to capture some Muslim ships sailing from Malacca to Aden, when a storm arose and the Portuguese ships had to shelter in Galle harbour. From there they went to Colombo to meet the Sinhalese king, Vira Parakramabahu VIII, who then had his capital at Kotte. They made an agreement with the king for the supply of cinnamon, and obtained his permission to build a fort and a small church at Colombo. The Portuguese arms were cut on a rock which can still be seen in Gordon Gardens, next to Queen's House, in Colombo.

The Portuguese gradually extended their rule over the coastal regions of Ceylon in the sixteenth century, but they never succeeded in bringing the interior of the island under their control. For nearly 100 years they ruled the whole of the coast region of Ceylon, and converted many of the Buddhists and Hindus to



Roman Catholic Christianity. That is why many Sinhalese still have Portuguese names, such as Periera, De Silva, Fernando, etc.

The Portuguese went farther and farther east in search of trade; they went to the islands of the East Indies, the 'Spice Islands' or 'Moluccas', and they built forts and trading-stations there. Finally they reached China and set up a colony at Macao, near the mouth of the Canton river. They were the first Europeans to reach Japan. If you look at a map, you will see that many of the places named above still belong to the Portuguese. Ceylon does not, for that was taken from them by the Dutch, and later the British conquered it from the Dutch.

It is interesting to note that the Portuguese were trying to find the way to India, round Africa, when they landed on the coast of Brazil. Brazil became a Portuguese colony, and its language is still Portuguese.

[Key-Question 30 : *Who conquered Mexico and Peru? How and why were they conquered?*] •

§ 30. Columbus and Magellan, neither of whom were Spaniards, were in the service of the Spanish king. Therefore the new lands discovered by them (the West Indies by Columbus, and the Philippine Islands by Magellan, named after King Philip of Spain) were claimed for Spain. But the biggest discoveries of the Spaniards were on the mainlands of Central and South America. In 1518, a Spanish officer named HERNANDO CORTEZ sailed from Cuba in the West Indies to the Coast of Mexico, in ten ships with 600 soldiers and a few horses and guns. The people of that country, who were called Aztecs, had never seen horses and guns before, and they were so wonder-struck at the size of the strangers' ships that they thought the gods had come to visit them and offered a great welcome. The Aztec religion was sun-worship, and the Aztecs thought that the Spaniards, in their shining steel armour, must be sons of the sun! Iron and steel were unknown to them; they used copper, silver and gold.

But the friendliness did not last. One of the Spaniards was killed, and, when the Aztecs saw that the newcomers were not

*The Spaniards the Portuguese build up & spread their power*

immortal gods but men like themselves, they turned against them and fighting began. The Spaniards, though few in number, had the great advantage of steel weapons and of guns. They had a difficult time, but in the end they won. Montezuma, king of the Aztecs, was forced to surrender and his life was spared only in return for a very big ransom in gold and jewels. Soon afterwards, Montezuma was killed by his own people who were angry with him for his surrender to the Spaniards. So Mexico passed under Spanish rule.

Cortez did not remain in Mexico after its conquest but went on to make more discoveries. He got as far as the southern part of California. Then he returned to Spain, only to find that enemies had been busy plotting to take away from him the king's favour. He never regained it and died a disappointed man. There is a story that when Cortez was an old man he managed to force his way into the presence of the king who did not remember him. When asked who he was, he replied : ' I am a man who has added more provinces to your empire than your forefathers handed down to you.' But the king of Spain did not care to remember what Cortez had done for his country.

The Spaniards were also the first Europeans to make great conquests in South America. Here also they found a great ancient civilization, that of the Inca people who lived in Peru. The name of the Spanish leader was FRANCISCO PIZARRO.<sup>1</sup>

On a journey to Panama, Pizarro heard that Peru was a land in which gold was so plentiful that it was used, as we use silver in India, for plates, cups, etc. This news no doubt made Pizarro decide to find that wonderful country, and he did so in 1532. Alas ! he behaved with great falseness and cruelty. The Inca king received Pizarro kindly, but Pizarro played a trick upon him. He made him prisoner and, after taking a great ransom in gold and jewels, murdered him. Peru came under Spanish rule, and for a long time afterwards was the chief country from which the

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<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'pit-zár-o'.



Spaniards took all the valuable things they could find, not caring how many Incas they had to kill in doing so.

#### EXERCISES

1. What were the aims of the Portuguese in the East and how far were they successful?
2. In what ways were the Chinese and Indians ahead of the Europeans at this time?
3. How and why were Mexico and Peru conquered by Europeans?

### SECTION 18 :

#### DRAKE : THE EAST INDIA COMPANIES

[Key-Question 31 : *How did Spain grow wealthy and what was the result ?*]

§ 31. The desire to get gold easily led the Spaniards into great cruelties in America; and it also led to another great evil, that of *slavery*. In § 23 we have mentioned how Columbus sent Red Indians from the West Indies to be sold as slaves. Slavery grew in Mexico and South America in another way also. When the Spaniards had taken from the Aztec and Inca temples and palaces all the gold ornaments and vessels that they could find, they found out where the gold came from—the rich mines of Mexico and Peru. First, they made slaves of the Mexicans and Peruvians and forced them to work in the mines. But they could not get enough of these. So negroes were brought from Africa. Thus began the great evil of negro slavery in America which has given America a problem not solved even today, though the negroes are no longer slaves.

The sudden flow of gold into Spain made that country very wealthy for a time, but it soon had bad results. Other European peoples, seeing Spain grow rich, felt jealous, and wanted to get a share.

In order to prevent the Spanish and the Portuguese from quarrelling for possessions overseas, the Pope in 1494 had marked a line on the map of the world dividing it into two parts. But a line drawn on a map, even by the Pope, was not able to stop other people from trying to take away from the Portuguese and

the Spanish the trade and the treasure they had found. The most dangerous rivals of Spain were the English.

Their leader, FRANCIS DRAKE, with a few small but fast and well-equipped ships, again and again attacked the big Spanish ships carrying treasure from America to Spain. It was after one such attack on the harbours of Peru that Drake sailed north, in his famous ship *The Golden Hind*, loaded with treasure taken from the Spaniards. Anxious to find a quick way home, he sailed more and more northwards, thinking that there might perhaps be an easy way round the north of America, as there was one round the south. Of course, he could not find this. When he reached a point on the American coast nearly as far north as Vancouver, he decided to go no farther but to return home round the world in the opposite direction. With great bravery he sailed west, across the widest part of the Pacific Ocean. After going on and on for more than three months he at last reached the Spice Islands (in the East Indies). From there he went to Java, then right across the Indian Ocean to South Africa, round the Cape of Good Hope, and so north again to Europe and home. He had been away for nearly three years.

Not long after Drake's return to England, the king of Spain made up his mind to punish the English once and for all. A great fleet of warships was made ready, with thousands of soldiers on board, with which England was to be invaded and conquered. But before the fleet could leave its Spanish port, Cadiz, Drake sailed suddenly into the harbour and sent fire-ships among the great ships of Spain, burning many of them. But, the year after this, the Spanish Armada (the great fleet of Spain) was ready again to set out for England. In the English Channel it was attacked by the waiting English fleet, which was smaller in numbers but had faster ships and sailors who could fire the guns much more rapidly. The Spanish fleet took shelter in a port on the coast of France, but at night the English sent fire-ships (boats filled with materials which burn fiercely) among the Spanish, and forced them to leave the harbour to escape being burnt. The English then attacked the Spanish ships and had already destroyed



many of them when a storm arose which prevented the remainder from getting away southwards, and drove them into the North Sea. They gave up all hope of invading England, and unable to turn back because of the English fleet behind them, they had to try to return to Spain by going right round the north of Scotland and to the west of Ireland. Most of them were wrecked in trying to do this. After this, the power of Spain grew less while that of the English increased.

[Key-Question 32 : *What European peoples started trading companies and where ?*]

§ 32. Meanwhile, the Dutch had also joined the game of trade rivalry. They set up a colony on the coast of north America, where New York now stands, and others in Guiana and Brazil. Another was at the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa.

Much of the trade between the ports of north-western Europe was carried in Dutch ships at this time. Goods brought by the Portuguese from the East to Lisbon were bought there by the Dutch and sold in other countries. In 1602 the Dutch East India Company was formed and Dutch ships soon began to bring goods direct from the East. So a fight for the eastern trade began between the traders of the two countries. The Portuguese forts in the East Indies were not strongly defended, so, in a few years, the Dutch took possession of them. Then they extended their trade to China and Japan, and began to trade with India too. In 1636 they tried to take Goa.

The Sinhalese king of Kandy, Rajasinha II, was eager to set his country free: he therefore invited the Dutch to help him to drive out the Portuguese, and in 1638 the Dutch bombarded Batticaloa and captured the fort there. It was not until 1656 that Colombo was captured. King Rajasinha had expected that the Dutch would hand it over to him, and he was naturally furious when they refused to do so. The Dutch, fearing that the Sinhalese would join hands with the Portuguese to get rid of them, then decided to seize all the Portuguese possessions in Ceylon and south India. In 1658 Jaffna and Mannar were taken, and the

Dutch ruled all the coastal regions of Ceylon for the next 140 years. Many old Dutch forts and houses can still be seen in Ceylon.

It was about the year 1600 that the English began to try to start trade in India and the East. In that year Queen Elizabeth allowed some London merchants to start a trading company called 'The East India Company', and in 1614 the company got permission from the Mogul emperor, Jahangir, to build a 'factory' at Surat. Such 'factories' were just a group of houses where the merchants lived and kept their goods. For safety they had a strong wall all round where guards were kept. Gradually,



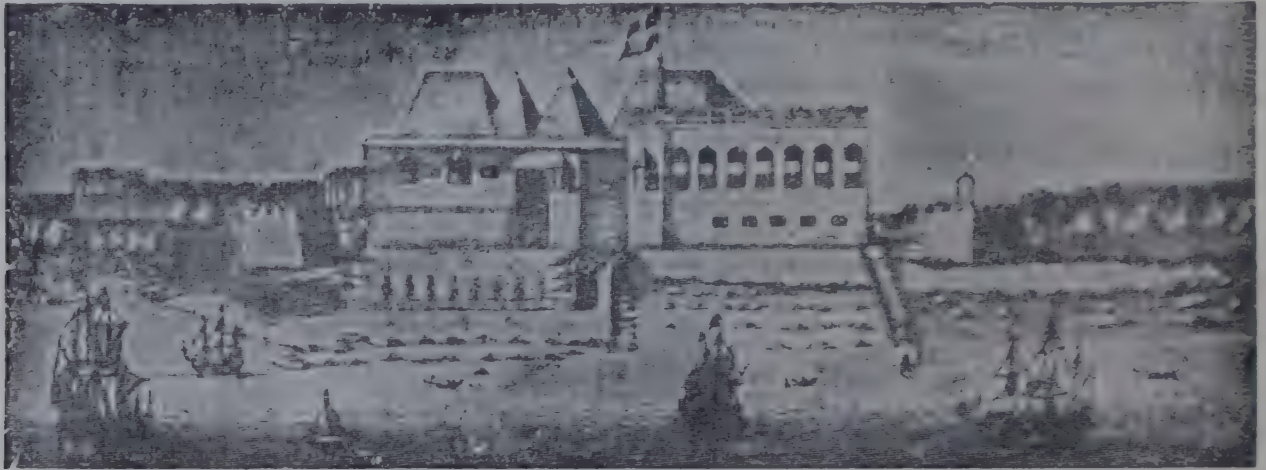
AT THE COURT OF THE GREAT MOGUL

therefore, they became like small forts from which the merchants carried on their trade. 'Factories' were soon set up at Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. With the permission of the Mogul emperor, the Company also kept its own men at inland places, such as Agra and Allahabad, where Indian goods were collected and then brought to the factories on the coast to be shipped to Europe.

The French East India Company was formed later than the English one, but Pondicherry in the south and Chandernagore near Calcutta soon became important trading-centres. About the same time the French were also very busy exploring and trading in north America. They were the first Europeans to sail up the



river St Lawrence and to discover the Great Lakes. They traded in valuable skins and furs with the Red Indians. They also set up



EAST INDIA COMPANY'S FORT AT BOMBAY

many trading-posts in the valley of the great river Mississippi and its tributary the Ohio. We shall see in Section 25 how the rival claims of the English and the French, both in India and in America, led to a 'Seven Years' War'.

#### EXERCISES

1. Make a list of places in each of the continents which at this time were used for trade by each of the following European peoples: Portuguese; Spanish; Dutch; French; British.
2. What differences can you notice between these three sorts of European colonies: (a) The Spanish in Mexico; (b) The Portuguese in India; (c) The French in Canada.
3. Read something more about Sir Francis Drake, and write a short account of his life.

## *Shakespeare and His Time*

### SECTION 19 : THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING IN EUROPE : SHAKESPEARE AND HIS PLAYS

[Key-Question 33 : *What great changes began at the time of the Revival of Learning ?*]

§ 33. In some history textbooks a great deal of space is taken up by the stories of kings and their conquests of each others' countries, and this gives us a wrong idea of the importance of kings and wars. The acts of men and women are the results of their thoughts and feelings. Therefore the struggle towards civilization has been helped more by those who changed men's ideas and feelings than by those who changed only the boundaries of the countries in which they lived. That is why in this book you will find more pages given to the stories of those who helped to spread great *ideas*—in religion, science, art, or government—than to those who built great palaces or destroyed thousands of their fellow-men.

In all the world's history up to recent times, the period of 'The Revival of Learning in Europe' or 'The Age of Wonder'—from about A.D. 1300 to A.D. 1600—was perhaps the richest in new ideas and great changes. The centre point of that period, the year 1450, is easy to remember. It was the time of the attack on Constantinople by the Ottoman Turks, of the escape of the Greek scholars with their books, of the beginning of printing in Europe, and of the beginning of discovery of new sea-ways to east and west. Try to keep this date in mind.

The Revival of Learning began in Italy. The greatest Italian poet, Dante,<sup>1</sup> was a young man when Marco Polo came back with his wonderful stories of the empire of the Great Khan. Leonardo da Vinci was born just at the time when the Greek scholars were escaping into Italy. England was so far away to

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<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'Dan-tay'.



the west that the changes did not happen there till much later. The English did not begin their voyages of discovery until a hundred years after the time of Columbus.

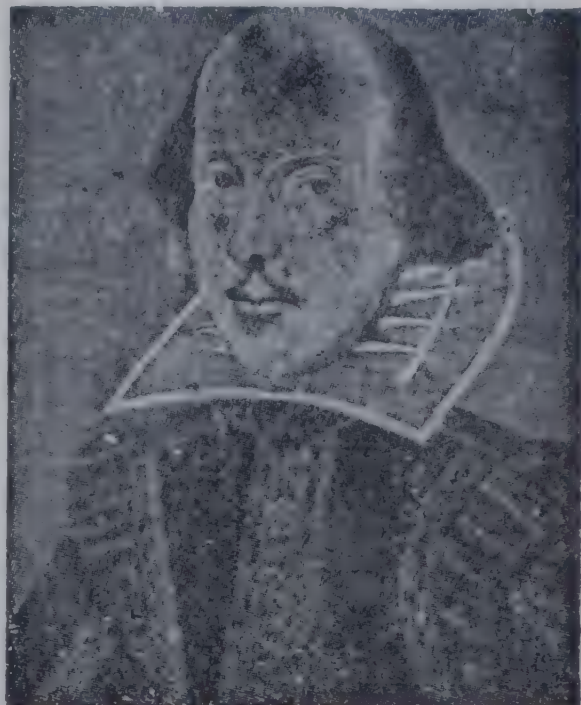
WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE was born in 1564 and lived right through those exciting times when new lands and sea-ways were being discovered and when King Philip of Spain sent his Armada to crush the English and force them to remain Catholics. Boys who lived in the sea-coast towns, especially, must often have heard sailors, back from voyages and wars in distant lands, telling of the wonderful adventures they had had, the extraordinary sights they had seen, the gold and treasures they had helped to win.

Life in Europe before Shakespeare's time must have been very dull and hard. It is difficult for those of us who live in modern towns to understand this. Those who have lived in an Indian village, far away from railways and post offices and newspapers, can have some idea. From the time of the Revival of Learning things began to change; first of all in the towns, of course. People began to take an interest in what was going on around them and in other countries. They began to seek for 'news' (which means 'new things'); they began to want more excitement and more entertainment. To meet this demand came, first, the *theatre*; then *novels* (which means 'stories of new things'); and, later, *newspapers*.

[Key-Question 34 : *In what ways was Shakespeare a genius and why are his plays still enjoyed everywhere ?*]

§ 34. Very little is known about the life of William Shakespeare. His father was a tradesman of Stratford-on-Avon, a town in the middle part of England. William was probably a pupil in the Stratford Grammar School, but his father got into debt and the boy had to leave school at the age of 14 or earlier. No one knows what he did then, but it is said that he joined a company of actors, and perhaps it was this that first made him think of writing plays. At the age of 18 he married. About this time he got into trouble and had to leave Stratford. He went to

London where again he became an actor. He succeeded in the theatre, and began to think of trying to write better plays for the theatrical companies to act. He knew that the plays in which he was acting were often bad, and, as a poet, he very much wanted to write something better. He took exciting or amusing stories from novels or from history books and re-wrote them, inventing new characters and improving the stories. Thus by his genius he made plays which pleased and amused the uneducated people of his time, but which also contain great poetic beauty and truth which have made his fame immortal.



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

Shakespeare was twenty-seven years old when he wrote his first important play, *Love's Labours Lost*, and for the next twenty years he was busy writing one play after another. At least thirty-five plays, besides a number of short poems, flowed from his pen during that time.

The extraordinary thing about Shakespeare's plays is that, though they show the life and thoughts of the people of his time, they are also interesting to us now, more than 300 years later. Also, Shakespeare's plays are enjoyed not only by his countrymen: they have been translated into every important language in the world, and they are still acted and enjoyed in all civilized countries today. Why is this? It is because Shakespeare not only put into his plays interesting stories with fine speeches and amusing jokes, but he showed the struggles which go on in the minds of men and women at all times everywhere. For example, in the play of *Julius Caesar* he has shown the murder of a great leader by his enemies. But he has also made us understand the different aims which were in the minds of each of the men who did that terrible deed—the jealousy of some, the intolerance of others, and



the great struggle between love for his friend and duty to his country which went on in the mind of Brutus, the greatest of them all.



THEATRE IN SHAKESPEARE'S TIME

Nowadays, when we see plays acted in a theatre, there are usually painted scenes to make as real an appearance as possible. The actors are dressed in the clothes of the time at which the events shown in the play are supposed to have happened. In Shakespeare's time there was nothing of this sort; there were no painted scenes. The stage was simply a platform with a roof over it and a balcony at the back (the 'upper stage' in the picture).

It had plain curtains at the back and sides which the actors could stand behind, before they came on to the stage. The dresses were the usual clothes of Shakespeare's own time. The play thus depended for its success altogether upon the words spoken by the actors and upon their skill in acting. It is another proof of Shakespeare's genius that so many of his plays contain pieces of poetry which cannot be forgotten, and which people of every civilized country, from Shakespeare's time down to the present day, love to remember and to repeat. His work is 'not of an age but for all time', and he may truly be called 'the world's immortal poet'.

The best proof of this is for you to read Shakespeare, or see his plays acted.

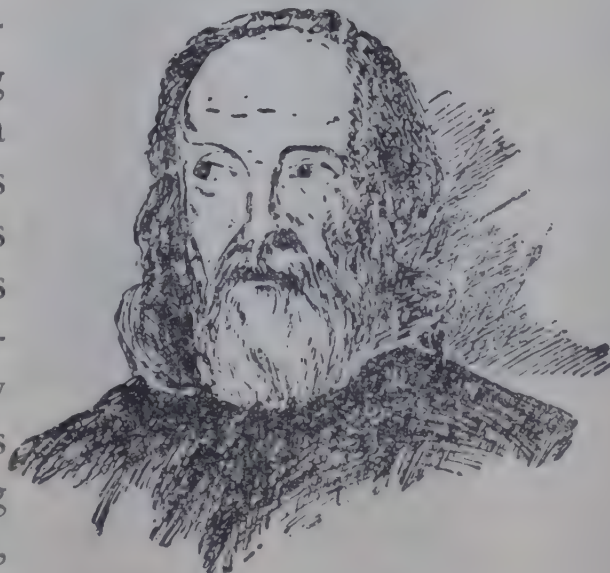
#### EXERCISES

1. When did 'The Revival of Learning' begin in Europe, and what were some of the causes of it?
2. Why can Shakespeare truly be called 'the world's poet'?
3. Tell the story of any play of Shakespeare.

### SECTION 20 : GALILEO : SIR FRANCIS BACON

[Key-Question 35 : *What discoveries were made by Galileo and Sir Francis Bacon and what results did they produce ?*]

§ 35. This period which we call the Age of Wonder or the Revival of Learning was an exciting time in which to live. It was a period when western Europe was reviving after the long darkness of earlier times. Shakespeare's plays often mention the new wonders—the discoveries of new lands, new materials, new foods and drinks, new ways of doing things, new thoughts and ideas, and new ways of putting them into words.



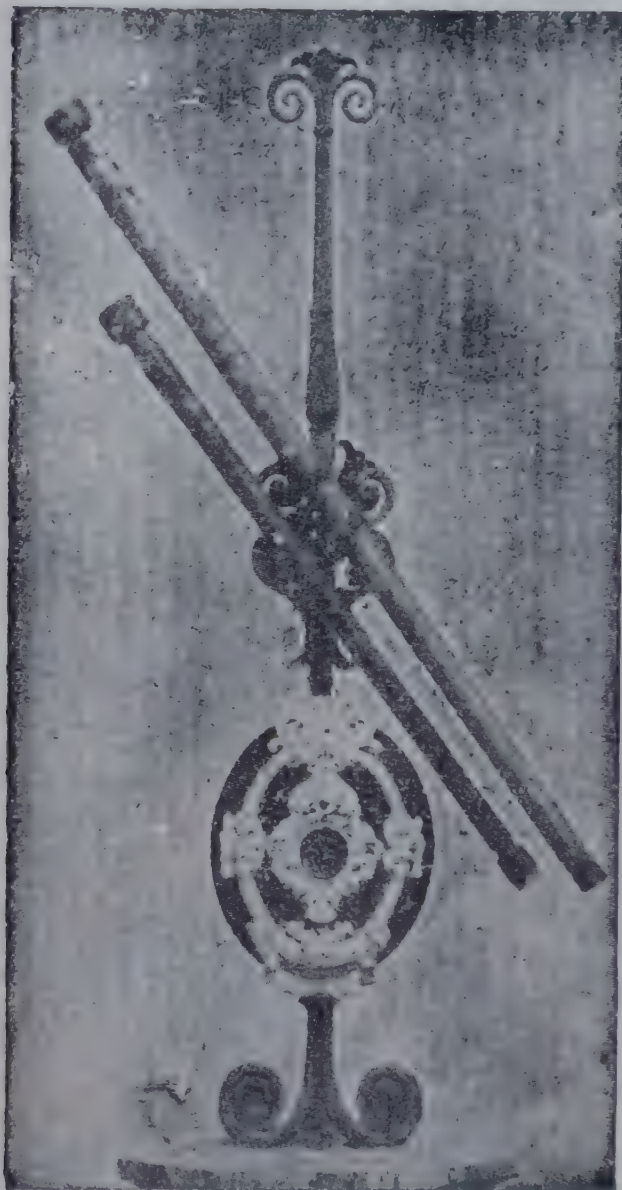
GALILEO



We have understood something of the beginnings of this feeling of wonder in the lessons on Roger Bacon, Leonardo and Columbus. In Shakespeare's time that feeling was at its highest. Now we must learn something about two leading scientists of Shakespeare's time.

GALILEO, a great mathematician and astronomer, lived in Italy, exactly at the same time as Shakespeare in England (and as Akbar in India); he became professor

of mathematics at the University of Pisa. <sup>1588</sup> Long, long before, as far back as 250 B.C., Greek scientists (and Hindus too) had discovered that the earth moves round the sun. But this knowledge, and a great deal more, had been altogether lost and forgotten during the Dark Ages after the destruction of the civilizations of Greece and Rome. About a hundred years before Shakespeare's time, a Polish mathematician, Copernicus, had rediscovered it. But Galileo was able to bring forward much better proofs of this through his improvement of the telescope. A simple form of telescope had been invented about 1608 by a Dutchman, Lippershey; in 1609 Galileo heard of this, and made a better one which



GALILEO'S TELESCOPE

he presented to the Duke of Venice. Through his telescope he could observe the moon, the planets, sun-spots, and many stars too small to be seen by the naked eye.

Galileo's telescope and some other discoveries of his (for



example, about the increasing speed of falling objects) brought him great fame at first. But presently he found that his opinions were disliked by the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church, who still believed that the earth was the centre of everything and that the sun and stars went round the earth. When he was 66 years old, Galileo was brought before the judges appointed by the Pope. His opinions were stated to be wrong, and he was commanded to say publicly that he no longer believed that the earth moved round the sun. If he had refused to obey, he would probably have been burnt alive, like John Huss of whom we read in § 27. This was more than the old man could bear. He surrendered, and made the statement required. But the story is that, after having read aloud the statement that the earth does not move round the sun, he said in a low voice to a friend standing very near: 'But it *does* move.' Even if this story has been invented, it may show that men were at last beginning to build their opinions upon the scientific observation of facts instead of merely believing blindly whatever their forefathers had said.

There lived at the same time as Shakespeare in England another great scientist, SIR FRANCIS BACON. He is quite a different person from the Roger Bacon of whom we read in § 18 although his last name is the same and he was also a scientist. Sir Francis Bacon is sometimes known as 'the father of modern science' because he was one of the first men (since the time of the Greeks) who showed the scientific method of finding out the truth. He taught that the wrong way is to start with a theory and try to make the facts fit into it: the right way is to make a large number of experiments and to note the results carefully. A theory can then be built up. But more experiments must be made and, if any of the results are found to be different, the theory must be changed to fit all the results. The true scientist is always ready to change his opinions when faced with new facts. He does not stick to his opinion like a proud man who is afraid to admit that he has made a mistake.

Bacon died as a result of one of his own experiments. He was going to London in his carriage (there were no railway trains



then). It was in the depth of winter and there was snow all around. He had the idea that, if the body of a dead animal could be kept very cold, its decay would be stopped. He got out of his carriage and went to a nearby farm, where he bought the dead body of a small animal that had just been killed. He gathered a lot of snow and put it in his carriage, and covered the dead body with snow. But he was then an old man and the cold gave him a bad chill, and before he reached London he was so ill that he could not go on. He died soon afterwards. The results of this experiment were not made use of until much later. We now use exactly the same idea in keeping food from decaying by putting it in a 'refrigerator'.

#### EXERCISES

1. What methods of modern science are shown in the work of Galileo and Sir Francis Bacon?
2. What did Galileo discover and why was he forced to deny the truth he discovered?
3. Bacon is sometimes called 'the father of modern science'. Why?

## 11

### *The Beginning of Nationalism*

#### SECTION 21 : WHAT IS A 'NATION'?

[Key-Question 36 : *What is a nation and how did 'nationalism' begin?*]

§ 36. We often use the word 'nation', and it is important to know exactly what it means. What is a nation? What do we mean when we say that '*India* won independence', '*Japan* invaded China', 'France, England, Russia and the U.S.A. fought against Germany, Italy and Japan', and so on? Please try to think what is meant by the word 'nation', and be ready to give your answer when your teacher asks you. The teacher will write on the blackboard all the various answers you give.

In helping you to find the right answer, I shall first of all try to show you what a nation is *not*.

Is it a group of people all speaking the same language? No: for the people of the British Isles and of the United States of America speak the same language but they belong to different 'nations'. India has many different languages. Even a small nation like that of the Swiss (their country is call Switzerland) has three distinct languages—French, German, and Italian. These are used in different provinces of the country. There is no Swiss language.

What about religion? No: there are people of many different religions in nearly all countries. All the people of a nation need not belong to the same religion, if they are civilized enough to be 'tolerant'.

Is a nation made up of people whose origin is the same, i.e. people of the same race? Well, that has something to do with it, for in each of the countries China, Japan, Norway, Sweden, most of the people belong to the same race. But, on the other hand, some of the most important nations are made of people belonging to a great many different races; for example, the U.S.A. consists largely of people whose fathers or grandfathers went to America with their families, about 50 or 100 years ago, from many different countries of Europe.

Then what really is the thing that we call a 'nation'? The answer is: it is an *idea*. It is a feeling and a thought in the minds of people who live together, making them *feel* united, even if they follow different religions, speak different languages, or belong to different races.

Now, if you are a very thoughtful person, you will say: if a 'nation' is only an idea, only a thought, it can easily be changed. It will not last. You are perfectly right. The idea of 'nationalism' (that is, the feeling of being united into a nation) is quite a recent growth. Just think of the case of India. Fifty years ago, people in India never thought of themselves as belonging to one nation, as sons and daughters of Mother India. They thought of themselves as Rajputs, or Bengalis, or Marathas, or Tamilians—



or, more probably, as Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Kayasthas, and so on. It was exactly the same in Europe in the year A.D. 1500. In the time of Leonardo da Vinci, Italians did not think of themselves as members of the Italian nation. They thought of themselves as men of Florence, or of Milan, or of Venice. Therefore, there was no Italian 'nation' at that time.

How did this new idea of 'nations' begin, and what made it spread all over the world? This is a very interesting and important question, and I shall try to answer it for you.

There are several factors which, multiplied together, help to make the idea of 'nationalism'. I think that one of the biggest is *the need to resist a common enemy*. If people feel that they are in danger of being conquered unless they join together, they can forget that they belong to different religions, or different races, or different castes or classes. This is what helped to make the English into a nation. When the king of Spain gathered his great Armada to conquer Britain, the men of Britain forgot that they were men of Kent or men of Cornwall or men of Yorkshire or Lincolnshire, and all joined together to resist the Spanish invasion. They even forgot their differences of religion. This was a remarkable thing; for, you will remember, it was partly because the king of Spain wanted to punish the English for their disobedience to the Pope that he attacked England. But even the English who were Roman Catholics joined with the Protestant English to fight against the Spanish. The English had begun to think of themselves as 'the English nation'.

The same thing happened in France about a hundred years earlier. An English king, whose forefathers had once been kings of a part of France, claimed that he was king of France too, and sent his army to invade France. For some time the English were victorious. Then a young French girl, JOAN OF ARC, aroused the French to join together. Joan put on steel armour and led the French soldiers into battle, with herself at the head, fighting like a man. Through their unity, the French were able to defeat the English army, and France also was born as a 'nation'.

When we turn to the history of India, we can see that it was

the failure of the Rajputs to unite in resisting the Muslim invasion, that led to their downfall. Prithviraj the Chauhan was defeated at Tarain in A.D. 1192 by Muhammad Ghori because he was not helped by Raja Jaichand of Kanauj. Rana Sanga might have defeated even the emperor Babur in 1528 if his own nobles had not been unfaithful to him and poisoned him.

[Key-Question 37 : *What did Akbar do for India and how was his work undone ?*]

§ 37. From the time of Ashoka the Great (see Section 6) until the present day no ruler of India has come nearer to uniting all the people of India into a great nation than the Emperor AKBAR.

Akbar was descended from Jenghis Khan, through his grandfather, Babar, who successfully invaded north India in 1528. He came to the throne when he was only 14 years old, and spent the first seven years of his reign in fighting (as Ashoka did) to extend his rule over the whole of north India. Although he had no time to learn to read and write, Akbar was so fond of knowledge that he gathered wise men around him and learned by discussing with them and by hearing others read.

Akbar's aim was to make all his subjects happy, and he was far ahead of his time in seeing that that could be done only by leaving each one free to follow <sup>x</sup>his <sup>x</sup>own religion. Although Akbar was born a Muslim, he did not try to force his religion on others. He made his officers treat all his subjects equally and, with the help of a wise Hindu minister RAJA TODAR MAL, he set up a system of taxation that was fair both to the poor and the rich. Akbar even tried to unite his people by marrying a Hindu princess and encouraging his Muslim nobles to marry Hindu ladies. Akbar died in 1605 (eleven years before Shakespeare's death).

Like so many other great rulers, including Alexander the Great and Ashoka, Akbar was unfortunate in not having an able successor to carry on his work. The grandeur of the Mogul Empire continued under Jehangir and Shah Jehan (who built the Taj Mahal at Agra), but under the Emperor AURUNGZEB, who came



to the throne of Delhi in 1658, Akbar's policy of 'tolerance' was changed. Aurungzeb tried to compel his subjects to accept his own religion, Islam. This broke up the unity which Akbar's wise policy had begun to create, and Aurungzeb soon had to face rebellions. In the north of India a new religion arose to check the spread of Islam. This was the religion of the *Sikhs*, a race of fighting men. And in the centre of India a great Hindu leader, SHIVAJI, began to train young men to resist Aurungzeb. In the next few years Shivaji conquered a large part of western and southern India, and in 1674 he was crowned king of a new Maratha Hindu empire. But, though he was a Hindu himself, Shivaji was tolerant to non-Hindus and fair to all; it was partly for this reason that he was able to win supporters so quickly.

Shivaji died in 1674, and Aurungzeb then attacked the Maratha empire with all his armies. Shivaji's son, who had succeeded his father as king, was captured and killed. When Aurungzeb died in 1707 he appeared to be the ruler of nearly the whole of north and central India. But within five years after his death, revolts broke out in many parts of the country, and India was again broken up into many parts under many different rulers. It was a disunited India into which the French and British traders came in the eighteenth century, and we shall see the result when we read Section 25.

#### EXERCISES

1. Why did India not become a 'nation' at the same time as England and France?
2. Write an account of the life of Shivaji.
3. Who founded the religion of the Sikhs? Write something about him and his teachings.

### SECTION 22 :

#### 'THE GRAND MONARCH' OF FRANCE

[Key-Question 38 : *What did Louis<sup>1</sup> XIV do for Europe?*]

§ 38. When a nation becomes united under a good king or a great Prime Minister it can do wonderful things. But if the king

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<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'Loo-ee'.

or the minister works more for his own power and glory than for the happiness of his people, things begin to go wrong.

In the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries all over the world there were powerful kings, but very few of them had yet learned to think that it was their first duty to make their people happy, not to surround themselves with luxury and splendour.

Most of the kings of this time believed that they had a 'divine right' to do whatever they pleased. They believed that God had allowed them to be born as kings, and that the people of their country were there to carry out their orders. We shall see what happened in one country after another, as a result of this idea.

The most famous of the European kings who believed in his 'divine right' was LOUIS XIV of France. He was on the throne of France for a longer time than any other king in European history. He came to the throne in 1643 and died in 1715. He ruled France just at the time when Aurungzeb was ruling India, but he came to the throne 12 years before Aurungzeb and died 8 years after him.

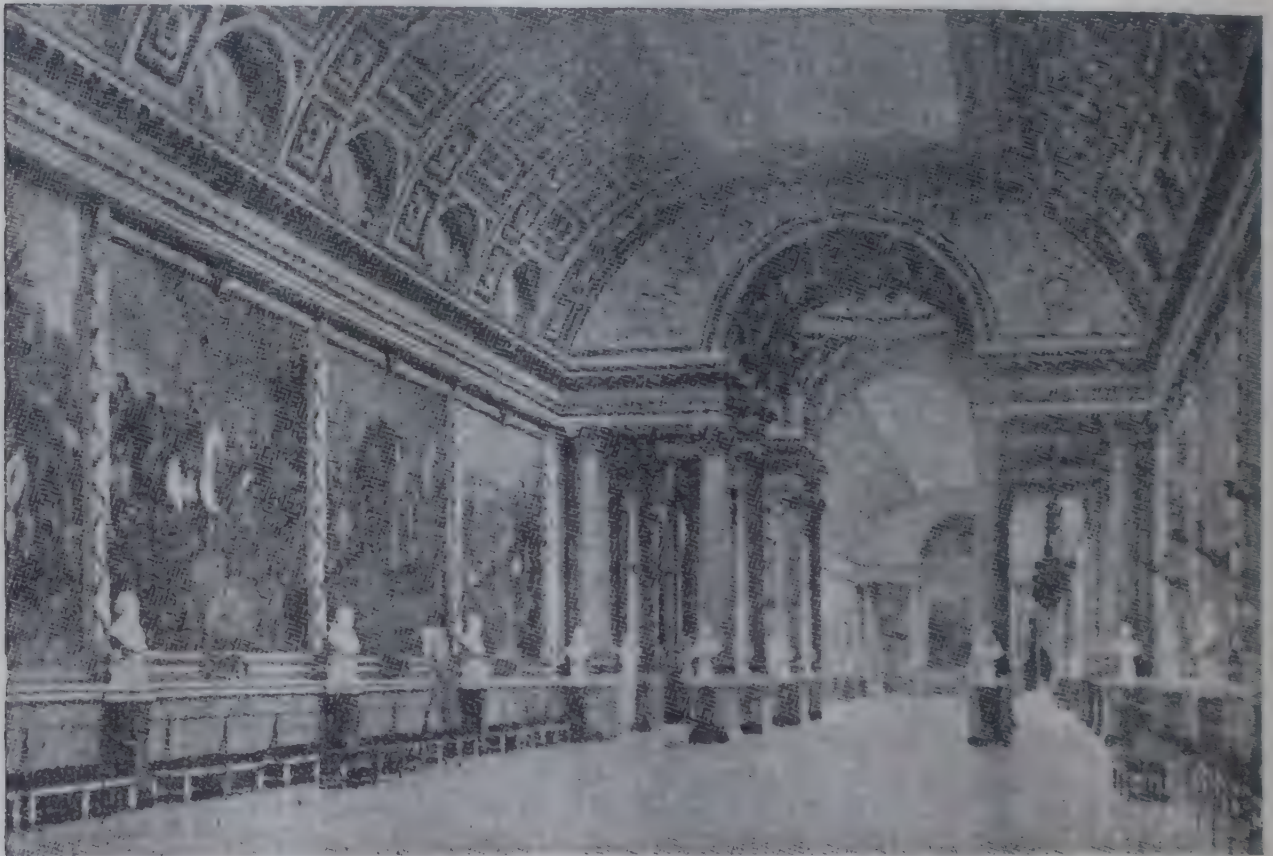
Louis was not a wicked man. He was able and ambitious, and his aim was to make France the most powerful and most admired nation in the world. But in thinking of France, he was not thinking of the *people* of France, but of himself and his surroundings. He is famous for his saying: 'I am the State.' And it was that State which he succeeded in making the wonder of the other nations of Europe. (He aimed first of all at the extension of his country from the River Rhine to the Pyrenees mountains; and secondly, at being surrounded with such luxury and splendour as had never been seen before.) Both these aims needed a huge expenditure of money; for the first, a great army; for the second, costly palaces and luxurious surroundings. The money for these could be had only by taxation, for the days of looting other people's countries were nearly over. The idea of Louis was that his people—the common people, cultivators and traders, not the nobles—existed simply to provide him with the necessary means to get what he wanted.

For carrying out his first aim Louis gathered a huge army and



had it very well trained under good generals. Then he invaded the country to the north of France which we now call Belgium. At first his army was successful in winning battles and capturing places, and it seemed as if Louis would get what he wanted.

But other nations did not wish Louis to become so powerful that he might try to attack their countries too. So they joined together to fight against him. Gradually the armies of Louis had to go back. The chief cause of his failure was the military skill of the English general, John Churchill,<sup>1</sup> Duke of Marlborough, who defeated the French armies in several great battles in Holland and Belgium.



A GALLERY IN LOUIS XIV'S PALACE AT VERSAILLES

Meanwhile Louis was succeeding in his other object. He had many splendid buildings constructed, the most remarkable of all being the huge palace at Versailles<sup>2</sup> near Paris, which cost several crores of rupees. Although it is no longer a royal palace (because France is now a republic), it is still used for great international

<sup>1</sup> Ancestor of the British Prime Minister, Winston Churchill.

<sup>2</sup> Pronounced 'vair-sy'.



gatherings. The Treaty of Versailles, which ended the First World War of 1914-18 against Germany, takes its name from that place, because the treaty of peace was signed there.

It was in the time of Louis XIV that France became the leader of Europe in dress, manners, furniture, architecture, and, for a time, in literature too. Pictures of that time show the great fountains in the park at Versailles, and the courtiers, riding or walking about the gardens, dressed in tight breeches, huge wigs, and broad collars.

When Louis died, in 1715, he left France a country of outward show and splendour, but full of discontent and poverty within.

#### EXERCISES

1. For what is Louis XIV famous in history?
2. In which of his aims did Louis XIV fail and in which did he succeed?

### SECTION 23 : PETER THE GREAT

[Key-Question 39 : *In what ways did Peter make Russia a modern nation ?*]

§ 39. Russia today is one of the largest and most powerful nations of the world, occupying a huge block of land stretching from the Baltic Sea to the Pacific Ocean, and from the Arctic Ocean to the boundaries of India and China. But it began as a small country surrounding Moscow, mostly covered with forests and with no outlet to the sea. All the coast-line of the Baltic Sea was under the rule of the Swedish king, and all the southern parts near the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea were ruled by Tartar and Turkish princes and kings. In the year 1682, when young Peter the First



PETER THE GREAT



came to the throne of the Tsars (the Russian kings) he was only ten years old and he was only a king in name. The government was carried on by his elder sister, and Peter was left to play. His greatest delight was to sail ships, and presently he began to want to build ships, too.

The only sea that Peter had under his control was the White Sea, in the arctic north, which is frozen for more than half the year. But here he made his experiments, and once narrowly escaped being drowned on a stormy voyage to some islands in the White Sea. When he was old enough to be really Tsar, Peter made his former hobby into a more serious occupation. He loved



RUSSIA IN THE TIME OF PETER THE GREAT

to use tools and to experiment with all sorts of machines. He gathered a group of young men, chosen not because they belonged to rich or noble families, but because they were interested in the same sort of things as Peter liked. One of these was a Swiss, named Lefort.

One of the remarkable things about Peter was that, though he had been brought up to be a king, he was always willing to learn by

beginning at the very bottom, and working upwards till he was fit to lead and direct others. For example, in his group of companions, he was not the leader because he was the Tsar. If others showed themselves abler than him in certain things, he used to promote them to leadership and work under their command. This is certainly one of the things that helped him to become 'Peter the Great', as he is now called.

By this time Peter had begun to feel that the White Sea was not big enough for him, and he looked about for a more suitable place. There were two seas to choose from: the Baltic Sea to the west, and the Black Sea to the South. Both were under the rule of other kings. The Baltic coast was under Sweden; the Black Sea was entirely within the great empire of the Ottoman Turks.

If you look at a map of Russia, you will see that the river Don flows from central Russia, not very far south of Moscow, to the Sea of Azov, which is a bay of the Black Sea. At its mouth is Azov which at that time was a strong fortress of the Turks. Peter attacked this fortress with his army. But he could not take it. He went back to Moscow and decided that next year he would try a different plan. He gathered together a huge number of carpenters and engineers, and at Voronezh (which, you will see, is on the river Don) he set them to work to build a navy. The workmen laboured day and night, led by Peter himself, the most skilful workman of them all. In six months his ships were ready, and this time he captured Azov. His soldiers surrounded the fort, and they were able to starve it into surrender because Peter's navy prevented the Turks from reaching Azov from the sea. Peter had won his opening to the ocean. He built the harbour of Taganrog as the first harbour for his navy on the Black Sea.

But this was only the beginning. Peter now wanted to see how things were managed in the more modern countries of western Europe. He decided to send ambassadors to the countries most advanced in the things he was specially interested in. But just to hear from others what they had seen could not satisfy a man like Peter. So Peter went, not as a leader but dressed as a common sailor, with Lefort as his chief! In this way he made certain that



he would be able to spend his time learning exactly how ships were built in other countries, what tools were used, what new machines had come into use. He did not want to waste a minute in polite talk to big officials or even to fellow-kings!

And for more than a year Peter actually did go from country to country, seeing what he wanted to see and learning what he wanted to learn. He saw how guns were made at Königsberg in Prussia, how ships were built by the Dutch and by the English; he studied anatomy; there seemed no end to all the things he wanted to know how to do. But he could not stay away longer from Russia. A rebellion started, and he had to hurry away to crush it. He did so in a few weeks, and no sooner had he finished this piece of work, than he surprised Russia in another way. Until that time the Russians had dressed quite differently from other European people. They wore long loose robes. The men all had long beards. Peter decided that Russia must become modern in appearance too. He commanded all the noblemen of his court to come to him one day, and with his own hands cut off their long beards and moustaches! The wearing of long robes was forbidden. Russians must dress like the Germans and the French. And, from that day, if anyone allowed his beard to grow long again, he had to pay taxes according to the length of his beard!

Now Peter turned his attention to the Baltic Sea. He attacked the Swedes, and after two years of war, he forced the Swedish king to give up all the provinces which are on the coast of the Gulf of Finland on the Russian side. This gave Peter the great chance he had been longing for—to build a new capital city for Russia, on the sea-coast. He founded the city of St Petersburg (named after Peter's patron-saint) which was renamed Leningrad after the Russian Revolution of 1917.

There is no doubt that Peter deserved his title of 'The Great'. But although he possessed great and noble qualities, we must not be blind to the fact that he also did great evil too. In order to carry out what he wanted, he did not care how much pain he caused or by what means he reached his aim. He lived in an age when cruelty was not much thought of, so perhaps we must not

judge him too severely for being cruel. It was a difficult thing to make Russia into a modern nation, and Peter succeeded where a softer and kinder man might have failed.

## EXERCISES

1. Make a list of things in which people can be different while still belonging to the same nation. Make another list of things which prevent people feeling that they all belong to the same nation.

2. Write a short account of the life and work of Peter the Great of Russia.

3. If 'nationalism' is only an idea, is it likely to disappear? If it disappears, what will take its place, and why?

## 12

*The Struggle for Empires Overseas*

## SECTION 24 : 'NEW ENGLAND'

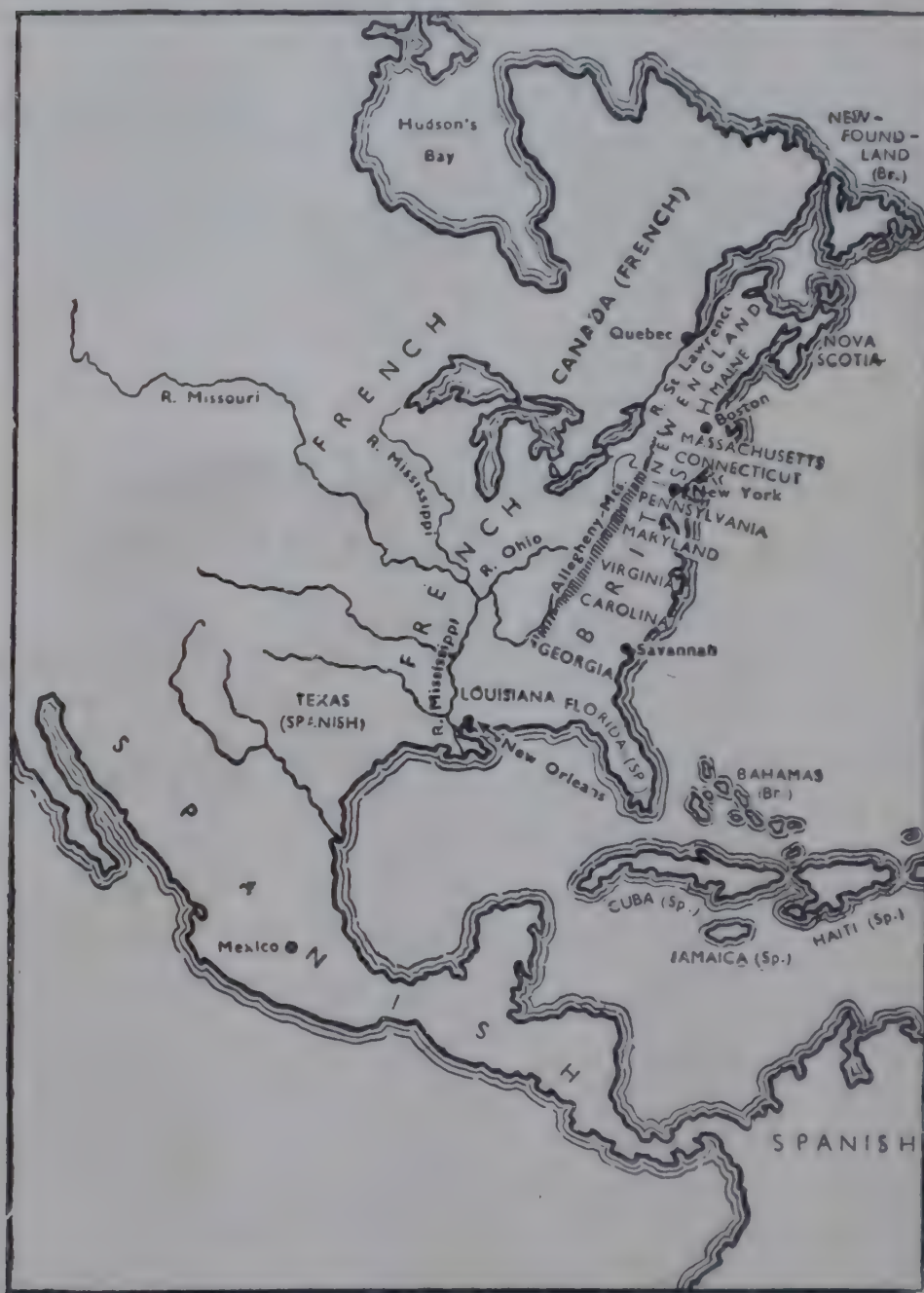
[Key-Question 40 : *Why were European Colonies founded in North America?*]

§ 40. In Section 16 we learned that, in the struggle between Roman Catholics and Protestants, the kings who took opposite sides usually expected their people to accept the religion of the king. But people who were really struggling for freedom to worship in their own way would naturally not agree to this. Thus it happened that in the seventeenth century, (that is from A.D. 1600 to 1700) many people who were anxious to follow the religion they believed to be true were obliged to leave their mother country, because their kings wished them to change religions and sometimes tried to force them to do so by imprisonment and torture.

Most famous of these people were *The Pilgrim Fathers*. When the English king took the side of the Protestants, he made himself head of the Church of England and separated it from the Roman Catholic Church. But this did not mean that he allowed people to worship in whatever way they thought best. They had to worship in the way laid down by the Church of England. If they refused to do so, they were punished severely by being fined or imprisoned or in crueller ways such as by being whipped or having



their ears cut off. About the year 1620 a group of people decided to leave England in order to have complete freedom. First they went to Holland, but then decided to make a new home in an



THE AMERICAN COLONIES

sachusetts (see map) at a place a little to the south of where Boston now stands. They called the place Plymouth, from the name of the last place they saw in England. After some years of struggle the colony began to prosper. Every year more shiploads of people arrived, and villages began to spring up all along the shore of Boston Bay.

entirely new country, America. One hundred and two men, women and children set out in a ship named *The Mayflower*, about twice the size of the ship in which Columbus sailed. They intended to land on the coast of Virginia, but bad weather drove them further north, and after a voyage of three months they landed on the coast of Mas-

But the sad thing is that those people who had left their mother-country in order to have freedom to worship in the way they thought right were not willing to give the same freedom to others in their new home. They had not learned the lesson of tolerance. They behaved so cruelly to those who wished to worship in a different way that newcomers were obliged to set up colonies of their own on parts of the American coast north and south of Massachusetts. This was how the colonies of Maine and Connecticut arose. Further south there were some Dutch and Swedish colonies, the chief of which was New Amsterdam. This was later taken by the British from the Dutch, and renamed New York. At this place the famous city of New York has now grown up. Still further south there was a colony started by a great man named WILLIAM PENN. Penn is of special interest to us in India because he believed in the same ideas of non-violence as Mahatma Gandhi. His colony, named Pennsylvania, was famous for allowing complete freedom for everyone to worship in their own way, and also because the colonists were non-violent towards the Red Indians. The result was that there was friendship between the colonists and the Red Indians, instead of frequent fighting as in the other colonies.



WILLIAM PENN

South of Pennsylvania on the map you will see Maryland. Maryland was a Roman Catholic colony, for Roman Catholics were not treated well in Protestant England. South of Maryland is Virginia, the earliest of the English colonies in America, founded in 1584 by SIR WALTER RALEIGH. It was in Virginia that Europeans found Red Indians smoking the leaf of the tobacco plant; and even now 'Virginian' tobacco is the most famous in the world. Also it was from Virginia that Sir Walter Raleigh brought the potato-plant to Ireland where it has become the chief crop of Ireland and one of the most important food plants of the world.



South of Virginia you will see North and South Carolina. These were originally colonies of French Protestants who had left France because the Roman Catholic French king treated them badly. English and Scottish settlers then came, and the colonies gradually became British. South of the Carolinas is Georgia. This colony was started long after the others by a kind-hearted man who saved from prison a large number of people who had been imprisoned for debt. To save them from getting into trouble again, he sent them to America where they started the colony of Georgia, named after King George II of England.

Most of the colonies mentioned above were either British or became British not long after they were started. But south of Georgia you will see Florida. This part of America was first discovered by Spaniards who came from the West Indies not long after the time of Columbus. On the west side of the River Mississippi is Texas, which was also a Spanish colony, and then comes Mexico, about which we have read in Section 17.

But, between Florida and Texas there were some French colonies along the banks of the great river Mississippi. These were named Louisiana after the French King Louis XIV. At the end of § 32 I told you that the French were also the first to sail up the great river of the north, the river St Lawrence, and to discover the Great Lakes. Now, if you look carefully at a physical map of North America you will see that many of the tributaries of the river Mississippi have their sources not far from the Great Lakes. So, it was not difficult for the French explorers, who reached the Great Lakes, to find those tributaries, specially the biggest tributary the river Ohio, and to sail down into the river Mississippi. This is exactly what they did, and we shall now see what was the result.

#### EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the European Colonies founded in North America and say who founded them and why.
2. For what is Sir Walter Raleigh famous?

SECTION 25 : FRENCH v. BRITISH : WILLIAM  
PITT : FREDERICK THE GREAT OF PRUSSIA

[Key-Question 41 : *What caused the French and British to become rivals in America and India? How did the British win?*]

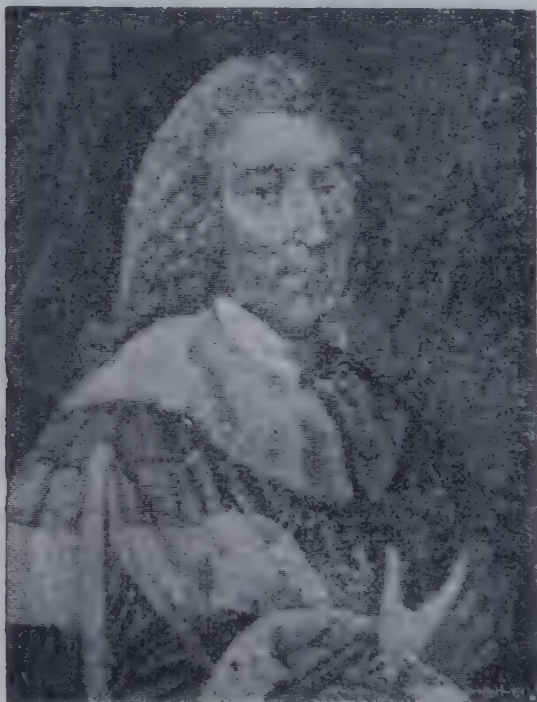
§ 41. In the last lesson you have seen how the British colonies in America were all along the east coast, while the French explorers went up the river St Lawrence into the Great Lakes, and then down the river Ohio into Louisiana. Look at the map again, and you will see why the two nations, British and French, presently began to fight. The British colonies grew quickly: many people came from the British Isles and other countries of Europe to make their homes in America. What had been little villages on the coast became important harbours, and more and more people went inland to make farms and build new towns. The people of the British American colonies began to want more space to live in. But when they crossed the mountains which are all along the eastern coast (see map), they came to the wide valley of the river Ohio—and there were the French.

The French colonists had more space than they could use. America, before the Europeans went there, was peopled entirely by a race (who came originally from north-east Asia) now known as Red Indians. You learnt in Section 14 how they got that name. But the number of Red Indians was very small for so huge a continent as America. In the whole of north America there were probably not more people in the time of Columbus than in Travancore State at the present time. The British colonists therefore wanted to extend their lands to the west. But the French did not wish to let the British occupy the country which they had already claimed for France. They built strong forts all along the rivers St Lawrence and Ohio, and threatened to drive out the British if they came any nearer.

Just at the same time the French and British became rivals in India. If India had been a united nation under a strong ruler like Akbar or Shivaji, no foreign power would have been able to interfere in her affairs. But after the death of Aurungzeb, the Mogul



power grew weaker and weaker, and the Nizams and Nawabs of the various provinces in many cases made themselves into independent rulers of States. In the midst of such disorder it became difficult for the French and British East India Companies to carry on their trade without the protection of some armed forces. At first they only strengthened their forts and kept soldiers to defend them. They then began to help the Rajas and Nawabs of the neighbouring places to increase their authority. They trained Indian soldiers for the armies of the Rajas and Nawabs, supplying them with European officers and with guns. When the Rajas and Nawabs began to fight each other with the help of these armies, the French and British East India Companies often found themselves on opposite sides, one Company helping one Raja, and the



WILLIAM PITT THE ELDER

other Company another. From this they began to take the Rajas' and Nawabs' help to fight each other, and so the struggle began to grow into a regular war. Thus, the French and the British were ready to fight each other both in north America and in India. We shall now see how they fought in Europe too.

England at this time had a great Prime Minister, whose name was WILLIAM PITT. Pitt was only 27 years old when he first became a member of the British Parliament, and he soon became famous by his eloquence. Little by little he rose to power and when he was 48 years old he became Prime Minister. (It was he who really laid the foundations of the British Empire.) He saw that the struggle between England and France was sure to come, and he made up his mind that England should win. This is what he did.

First of all, he chose young and able leaders for the British navy, and for the British armies in America and India. He sent them

out to fight the French, with the best equipment that could be got. It was Pitt who chose ROBERT CLIVE to lead the British in India. He was only 27 years old but he soon showed that he was a military genius. The commander chosen by Pitt for the British forces in North America was JAMES WOLFE, a young officer only 31 years old.

The second thing Pitt did was to keep the French busy in Europe, so that they could not send much help to their armies overseas. This he did by supporting the chief European enemy of France, KING FREDERICK II OF PRUSSIA. Frederick was one of the greatest military geniuses of that time, and he had trained the Prussian army until it was the most powerful in Europe. With the help of this army he planned to make Prussia one of the greatest nations in Europe. In order to do that he had to defeat the French who were his strongest rivals. Pitt sent some British soldiers to help Frederick, but the chief help he gave was in money which Frederick needed very badly to pay his men and to feed and equip them properly.

The war lasted for seven years, from 1756 to 1763, and for this reason it is known as 'The Seven Years' War'. Frederick had a difficult time at first: for Russia, Sweden, and Austria were on France's side against him. But, fortunately for Frederick, the Empress of Russia died, and the next ruler, who was a great admirer of Frederick, withdrew from the war against him. Helped by the discipline of his well-trained army, he then gained victory over France and Austria. Meanwhile the British navy drove the French from the seas, and British armies under Wolfe in Canada and under Clive in India defeated the French on land. Peace was made in 1763. Under the Treaty of Paris the French had to give



FREDERICK THE GREAT



up all their claims to lands in North America and India. Prussia became one of the leading nations of Europe, and the British Empire was born. This was mostly due to the work of William Pitt (who was by that time Earl of Chatham) and to Frederick II, king of Prussia, known from that time onwards as Frederick the Great. Frederick deserved the title, not only because he was a great soldier, but because he was the first king in Europe to try to educate all his people and to make them tolerant of each other's religion. In these things he was far ahead of his time.

#### EXERCISES

1. How did William Pitt win the Seven Years' War for the British?
2. Read more about Clive and Wolfe and write a very short account of the victories they won against the French.
3. Read about Frederick the Great and how he made Prussia a powerful country. Write a short note on what he did.

## 13

### *Rebellion and Revolution*

#### SECTION 26 : THE AMERICAN COLONIES REBEL : GEORGE WASHINGTON

[Key-Question 42 : *Why did the American Colonists fight for independence and what difficulties did they have to face?*]

§ 42. War is a costly business, and though the British had won the war against France, they had to pay for it. Because the British colonists in America had gained advantages from the defeat of the French, some of the British ministers began to say that the colonists ought to pay a part of the cost of protecting America. Even

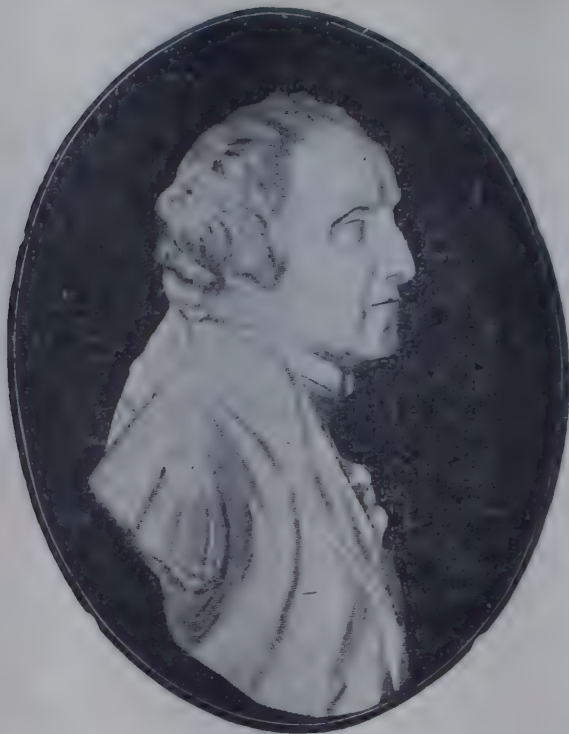
though the French had been defeated, there was still a possibility of another attack from them or from the Red Indians. The British Government therefore asked the colonists to raise taxes to pay part of the cost of keeping a small army in America for their own protection. But the colonists objected, saying that there ought to be '*No taxation without representation*,' i.e. people should not be taxed unless their representatives have consented to that taxation (and the American colonists had no representatives in the British Parliament). Many people in England thought that the colonists were right in this, and when the British Government passed a 'Stamp Act' (for raising taxes in the colonies by compelling the use of stamps on certain documents) they supported the colonists' agitation for the Act to be withdrawn. It was withdrawn, but in 1763 another attempt was made to raise taxes in America, this time on tea. When the tea-ships arrived at Boston, some of the colonists forced their way on board and threw the tea into the harbour. To punish them, the British Government ordered Boston harbour to be closed and sent troops to do this. Presently there were armed struggles, and these led to fighting on a larger scale. Most of the colonists and their friends in the mother-country hated the idea of killing each other for such a cause. Moreover, the colonists had no army of properly trained soldiers to fight with. But they refused to give in. They got ready to fight.

The first thing to do was to find a good leader. The colonies were not a united nation. Each colony had its own independent government, as our Indian States had. If they had tried to fight the British separately they could not possibly have won. But *the need to resist a common enemy* made them willing to work together (see Section 21). They found a great leader in GEORGE WASHINGTON.

George Washington was born in Virginia in 1732. He was a farmer and a farmer's son. Until he was more than forty years old, he spent his time almost entirely in looking after his estates, on which corn and tobacco were the chief crops. He gained some military experience, however, in fighting for the British against the



French. When the Seven Years' War had been won, Washington



GEORGE WASHINGTON

went back to his farming. Nothing would have pleased him better than to spend the remainder of his life developing a bigger and bigger colony towards the river Mississippi. But the British Government did not like this because it would have meant fighting against the Red Indians who lived in those parts. The British had had enough of fighting in the war against the French. So laws were passed forbidding the colonists to go beyond the river Ohio. This action of the British Government annoyed the colonists of the southern states.

At the same time the laws ordering the payment of new taxes annoyed those of the north. The colonists of the north and of the south alike, therefore, were angry with their mother country.

When King George III sent his armies to force the colonists to obey, Washington was the man chosen by the colonists as their leader. He did not want to accept this responsible work, for he considered himself unfit for it. But when he saw that his fellow-countrymen needed his help and wanted him, he took up the task. He refused to accept any salary. At first he was faced with very great difficulties. Although the colonists were hardy farmers and foresters, and could shoot, they were not used to military discipline and had almost no equipment for a war. During the first year and a half, the Americans (as we shall now call them) suffered defeat after defeat from the more experienced British soldiers. But, in spite of this, they refused to give in. Washington went on training more men and gathering equipment for them, and in 1777 the tide began to turn.

The colonists were helped because many people in Britain were against carrying on a war against their brave countrymen who had

settled in America. In the year 1777 a whole British army of 8,000 men had to surrender to the Americans at Saratoga. This encouraged the French and Spanish to help the Americans. A treaty of alliance was signed and a French fleet set sail for America. Up to this time the British had had the advantage of control of the sea, but this was now weakened. The result was that in 1781 a combined force of Americans and French was able to surround another British army of 7,000 men at Yorktown in Virginia. This made victory sure for the Americans. *The control of the sea* again proved to be the most important thing for the British, and this time it was against them. In 1783 King George had to admit that the former British colonies of New England were free and independent states. The Canadian colonies had not joined the war, so they remained British.

The winning of independence by the small group of New England colonists began the life of the United States of America, which has since grown to be one of the largest and most powerful nations of the world. The Fourth of July is the great day of celebration for that nation, because it was on 4 July 1776 that the colonists first declared themselves to be no longer under the British Government.

Their difficulties did not end, however, with the winning of their freedom, for they had had very little experience of self-government. Until the time when the war began, each of the states had managed its own affairs quite separately. They now had to find a way to unite in managing their affairs as a single nation. This was not easy, for each state was jealous of its own freedom and did not want to give up powers to a central government. It took no less than eleven years, from the time when they declared their independence in 1776, for them to agree upon their new constitution.

In 1787 representatives of the states met to decide what should be done. Washington came as representative of his own state, and he was elected Chairman. Then it was decided that the states should unite themselves into a Federation. That is a form of government in which the federating states (or provinces) continue to manage their own affairs in matters which concern themselves



only; but in matters which concern the nation as a whole—such as defence, money, postal system, telegraphs and railways, foreign trade, treaties and war with foreign countries—they agree to be ruled by a central or federal Government, consisting of representatives of all the federating states or provinces.

Most Americans, of course, hated the idea of having a king. They decided instead to elect one of their leading men as President for a period of four years, and to hold fresh elections after every four years, so that no one man could ever become powerful for too long a time. The first man they elected as President of the United States of America was George Washington.

#### EXERCISES

1. Give a short account of the life and work of George Washington.
2. How did control of the sea affect the result of the American War of Independence?
3. What is meant by a 'federation' and how does it differ from a 'league' of states or nations?

### SECTION 27: THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

[Key-Question 43 : *What was the cause of the French Revolution and what was the result of it?*]

§ 43. The fight of the American colonists was what is called a rebellion, that is a struggle for independence. The French helped the Americans in their rebellion against British rule. But now in France itself a great disturbance took place. This was not a rebellion but a 'revolution', that is, an overthrow of the government of a country by its own people. The French Revolution took place because the poorer people of France were very heavily taxed by their kings, who lived in great splendour and luxury (see Section 22). The nobles and the priests did not have to pay any taxes at all, although they were the richest people of the country.

All the wars which the French had been fighting cost a great deal of money, and the heavier and heavier taxes which the French people had to pay made them very discontented.

Another thing which helped to make the French people discontented was the example of the American colonists. The Frenchmen who had gone to fight on the side of the colonists against the British came back to France with new ideas of freedom, and they found it impossible to bear the tyranny of the king, the nobles and the priests, which they found in their own country.

The French revolution began in 1789. At first it was not very violent. The people demanded the calling of the French Parliament (called the States-General) which had not met for a long time. At its meeting it was decided to change the laws so that the nobles and rich men should no longer be free from taxes, and to give the poor equal rights with the rich in cases of arrest or disputes. But though the king agreed to these changes he did not really mean to carry them out. He secretly tried to gather an army to restore his power and to crush the people again. When the people of Paris heard of this they marched to Versailles—the great palace, some miles outside Paris, which Louis XIV had built for himself at enormous cost—and forced the king to come back to Paris, where they kept him a prisoner in his palace there.

In 1791, the king tried to escape in order to join an army which his noblemen-friends had gathered to help him. He was caught near the boundary of Germany. The people were now very angry with the king. They knew he could not be trusted to keep his promises and to rule constitutionally (that is, according to the constitution or laws of the nation laid down by Parliament). Many of the most powerful leaders of the people said that it would be best to kill the king and all his family, so that they could cause no more trouble. In 1793 the king was guillotined (that is, his head was cut off by a machine called the 'guillotine')<sup>1</sup> and in the next two years thousands of nobles, including the queen and other members of the royal family, were killed in the same manner. This period is called the 'Reign of Terror'. People were killed simply because they were of noble family. The chief leader of the Terror was a man named Robespierre.<sup>2</sup> Presently Robespierre began to get rid of his own rivals in the government

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'gill-o-teen'.

<sup>2</sup> Pronounced 'ròbe-spee-air'.



in the same way. Other leaders were afraid that their turn would come soon, so they joined together to get rid of Robespierre, and sent him to the guillotine too. After his death, the Terror ended and a constitutional government on republican lines (that is, with an elected President, as in the United States, instead of a king) was set up.

This revolution was no doubt terribly violent and caused the death of many innocent people. But it did quickly some good things for the French people. First, it got rid of the many unfair advantages that the nobles, rich men and priests enjoyed. The same laws were laid down for rich and poor alike, and men were more justly taxed instead of the poor paying a lot and the rich paying nothing. Secondly, the great estates of the nobles, on which the poor had been forced to work, often almost like slaves, were broken up and sold cheaply to people of the middle and lower classes. Thirdly, trade was improved and all occupations became open to those who were fit for them, whatever might be their family or position.

Most of the French people certainly felt that the Revolution brought them the chance of a new and better life. This was what made them support the Revolutionary Government, in spite of all its violence and bloodshed. But the kings of neighbouring countries were angry with the French for killing their king. Prussia and Austria wanted to punish them, and they sent armies to invade France. But the French defended their new Republic bravely. Although they had hardly finished their Revolution, they managed to get together new French armies which stopped the invaders. The French then actually drove the Austrians out of Belgium and Holland, and attacked Italy which at that time was under Austrian rule.

#### EXERCISES

1. What were the causes of the French Revolution and what were its results?
2. Read *A Tale of Two Cities*, an exciting story of the French Revolution by Charles Dickens.

SECTION 28 : THE EMPEROR NAPOLEON :  
NELSON : MOSCOW : WATERLOO

[Key-Question 44 : *How did Napoleon rise to power ?*]

§ 44. And now there rose to power an extraordinary man who, for a time, ruled France as emperor—and conquered most of Europe too. That was NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

Napoleon got his first chance of leadership because of the war. He showed himself to be so able as a military officer that at the age of 27 he was made commander of the French army fighting against the Austrians. It was under Napoleon that the French drove the Austrians out of France, and invaded Italy.

In 1795 when the French invaded Holland, the British in India were afraid that the French would use Trincomalee, the fine harbour on the east coast of Ceylon, as a base from which to attack them in India. The British therefore sent a fleet from Madras to capture Trincomalee from the Dutch. For some time the power of the Dutch in Ceylon had been growing weaker and weaker. So, when in 1796, the British attacked Colombo, the Dutch were not helped by the Sinhalese.



NAPOLEON

Colombo was easily captured, and all the Dutch settlements in Ceylon soon afterwards surrendered to the British.



By this time the British were also in the war against the French. Napoleon told the French Government that the best way to attack the British was to stop their trade and to capture their colonies, especially their empire in the East. He therefore took the French army across the Mediterranean Sea to Egypt, which he conquered. But in the meantime the British navy, commanded by Nelson, arrived and defeated the French navy at the Battle of the Nile (1798), thus cutting off Napoleon from France. He then tried to march his army back to Europe through Palestine and Asia Minor, but the British and Turks combined to stop him at Acre in Syria, and he had to go back to Egypt. Things were going badly at home, too. The new French Government was weak. The Austrians had won back most of the coun-



try conquered by Napoleon, and the French people were getting dissatisfied. In great haste to get home, Napoleon left his army



in Palestine, where it was soon defeated by the British, when he was not there to lead it. But the people of France welcomed him back because they felt he was a strong man who would set things in order. They voted that, instead of having a republican government, the government should be in the hands of three men, called Consuls, of whom Napoleon was to be the Chief, or First Consul. Napoleon soon showed what sort of man he was, when he had all the power in his hands. First he drove the Austrians out of Italy again and made himself king of Italy. Then he captured Vienna, the capital of Austria, and defeated the armies of the Austrian emperor and the Russian emperor at a great battle at Austerlitz in Austria. Then he went on and defeated the Prussians. In 1802 the French elected him First Consul for life, and in 1804 they gave him the title of Emperor.

[Key-Question 45 : *Which countries did Napoleon conquer and why did he fail in the end ?*]

§ 45. By 1810 almost all Europe was under Napoleon's rule, except the British Isles, Russia and Turkey. Napoleon did his best to conquer the British. He might have succeeded if he could have gained control of the sea, for then he could have stopped their trade, captured their colonies and even invaded England. He kept a huge, splendidly trained army all ready for this purpose on the French side



NELSON



of the channel, with boats to take them across as soon as the way was clear. But the British navy blocked the way. Then Napoleon tried to starve the British by forcing all the nations of Europe to stop trading with Great Britain. He did not succeed because of the British navy. It was during this time that the famous naval battle of *Trafalgar* was fought between the British and the French, with NELSON as the admiral of the British navy. The French navy was completely defeated, and the British kept the control of the seas. Nelson was killed in the battle.

It was Napoleon's attempt to stop the other nations of Europe from trading with the British which really began his downfall. Though he had not actually conquered Russia, Napoleon forced the Russian emperor to be his ally, after he had defeated the Russian armies. But the Tsar refused to obey Napoleon's order not to trade with the British. Napoleon was very angry and determined to punish the Tsar by invading and conquering his country. In 1812 Napoleon marched into Russia with an army of more than half a million splendidly trained and experienced soldiers. But those men marched to their death. They were defeated not by the Russian armies but by the Russian climate and the Russian people. They defeated the Russian army; they actually entered Moscow, the Russian capital. But soon after the French reached Moscow the city was in flames. Whether its wooden houses caught fire accidentally, or were set on fire by the citizens, no one knows. But it was disastrous to the French. They had expected to find food in Moscow and they found hardly any. Everywhere, the Russian people had destroyed the crops and the food supplies before they went away. The French were starving. And then the winter came. Winter in Russia is much more extreme than in France; it is terribly cold. There was nothing to be done except to try to march back to France, two thousand miles or more, as far as from Kashmir to Cape Comorin. Not only had the French no food, but the Russians now began to attack them from behind. They died in thousands. Out of that army of more than half a million, only twenty thousand ever reached home.

Even then, Napoleon's extraordinary life was not ended. The French still admired him for his military skill and for the victories and the glory he had won for them, though at such terrible cost. He raised another army, consisting mostly of old men and boys. But the other peoples of Europe had grown tired of his rule. The British landed an army in Spain and another in Portugal to help the Spanish and Portuguese who had started a rebellion. The Russians and the Prussians and the Austrians joined together against Napoleon. He was defeated in Germany at the great Battle of the Nations, and was driven back to France. Paris was taken, and Napoleon was forced to give up his throne. He was sent as an exile to live on the island of Elba, off the coast of Italy; and a brother of the French king who had been killed in the Revolution was made king of France.

But the French did not like the return of a king of the old sort, and when, after less than a year, Napoleon escaped from Elba and promised to rule them constitutionally, they believed him, and welcomed him. But the allied Nations of the rest of Europe knew that he could never be trusted to rule peacefully. They united to attack him again, and in June 1815 Napoleon's last battle was fought, the battle of *Waterloo*. He was completely defeated, and had to surrender. He was exiled to the island of St Helena off the western coast of Africa, where he died in 1821. For some years the French were ruled again by their old kings, but later another republic was set up and since then France has remained a republic.

Napoleon caused the death of at least a million men in battle, and the sufferings of millions more through wounds and starvation. His work as a soldier was all undone. Yet France gained something from his rule. He planned and made fine roads and bridges and buildings, which still exist. He also revised the laws of France. But, for the things he did, Europe had to pay terribly in suffering and death.

#### EXERCISES

1. What good things did Napoleon accomplish for France and what harm did he do?
2. How did control of the sea affect Napoleon's career?



## *The Machine Age*

### SECTION 29 : THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

[Key-Question 46 : *What was 'The Industrial Revolution' and what was its effect ?*]

§ 46. We have seen in Sections 24, 25 and 28 how the British, the people of those small islands off the north-west coast of Europe, gradually built up a great overseas empire; and how through their control of the sea they were able even to bring about the downfall of the mighty Napoleon. That empire grew more widespread and more powerful after the defeat of Napoleon, so it is worth while stopping here for a moment to see the causes of its growth.

It began and it grew, first, because the British islanders were a very adventurous people. They were used to risking their lives in small boats on stormy seas, and they enjoyed trying to discover new lands and new things. They are still like that, as is shown by adventures like the attempts to reach the north and the south poles, and to reach the tops of the highest mountains in the world. They were good colonists too: that is, they did not mind leaving their homeland and taking the risk of making a new home in a far-off country.

Secondly, they were keen traders. Most of the places which have now become parts of the British Empire were first visited by Britishers as private citizens and traders; they built trading-stations and settled there. The British Government only took charge later, as in the cases of India, Canada and South Africa.

Thirdly, they were keen seamen and built swift ships for trading, and to keep in touch with their various colonies all over the world. The ocean, instead of separating them from their friends overseas, was the means of uniting them. By having a strong navy they were able to defend their empire and to keep rival nations from interfering with them, however strong they might be (like Napoleon) on the land. Whenever they lost control of

the sea (as for a short time during the revolt of the American colonists) it was disastrous to them.



'THEY BUILT SWIFT SHIPS FOR TRADING'

Lastly, they were very inventive, and were determined to find ways to overcome whatever difficulties came in their way.

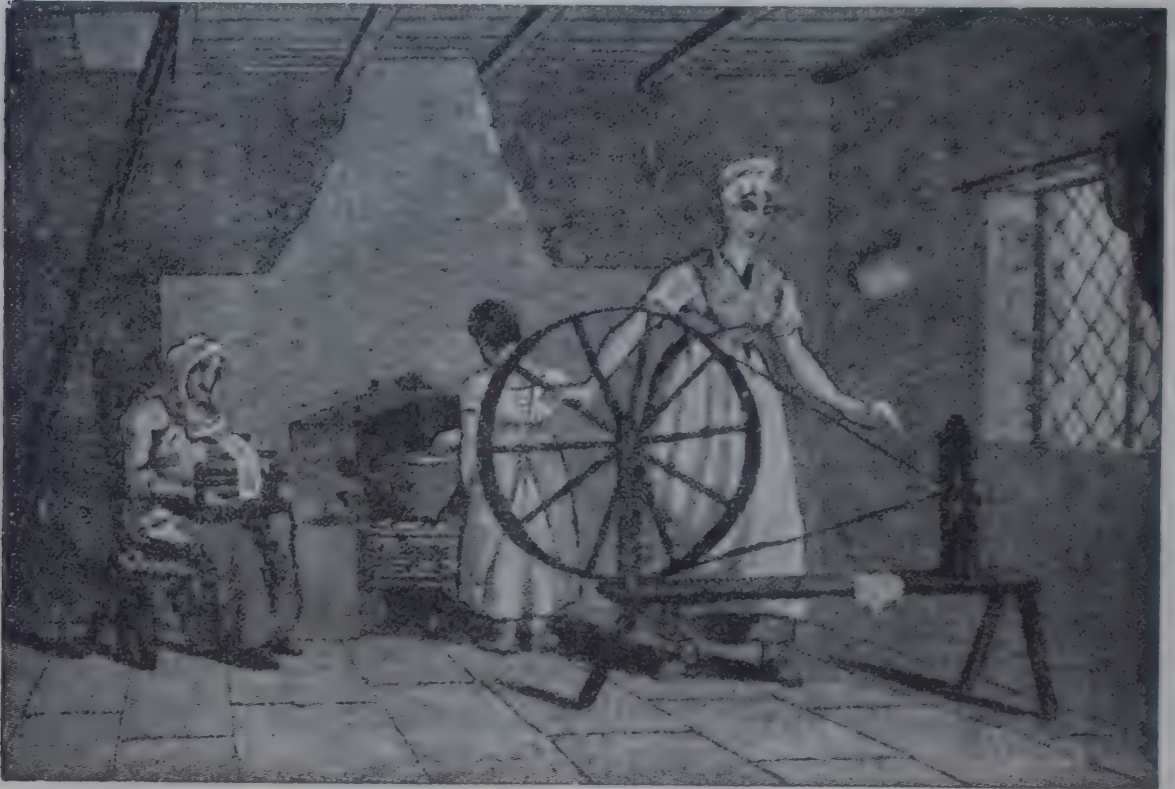
Now we shall see how this inventiveness of the British people helped them to take the lead for a whole century from the time of Napoleon onwards.

Up to this time all manufactured goods had been made by hand (that is the meaning of the word 'manufacture'), and they were almost always made in small quantities by craftsmen working in their own homes. We call such crafts 'cottage industries' (see the pictures on page 128 and on page 129).

Every village had its own small group of craftsmen, just as many villages in India still have. Most of the women spun yarn on their simple spinning-wheels or *charkas*; there were a few families of weavers, a potter, a blacksmith, a carpenter or two, a leather-worker. Certain districts or towns became famous for making certain things, either because they had specially skilled workers or a good supply of materials, or both. For example,



Dacca in Bengal became famous for its muslin or fine cotton cloth, the south of France for its silk, north England for its



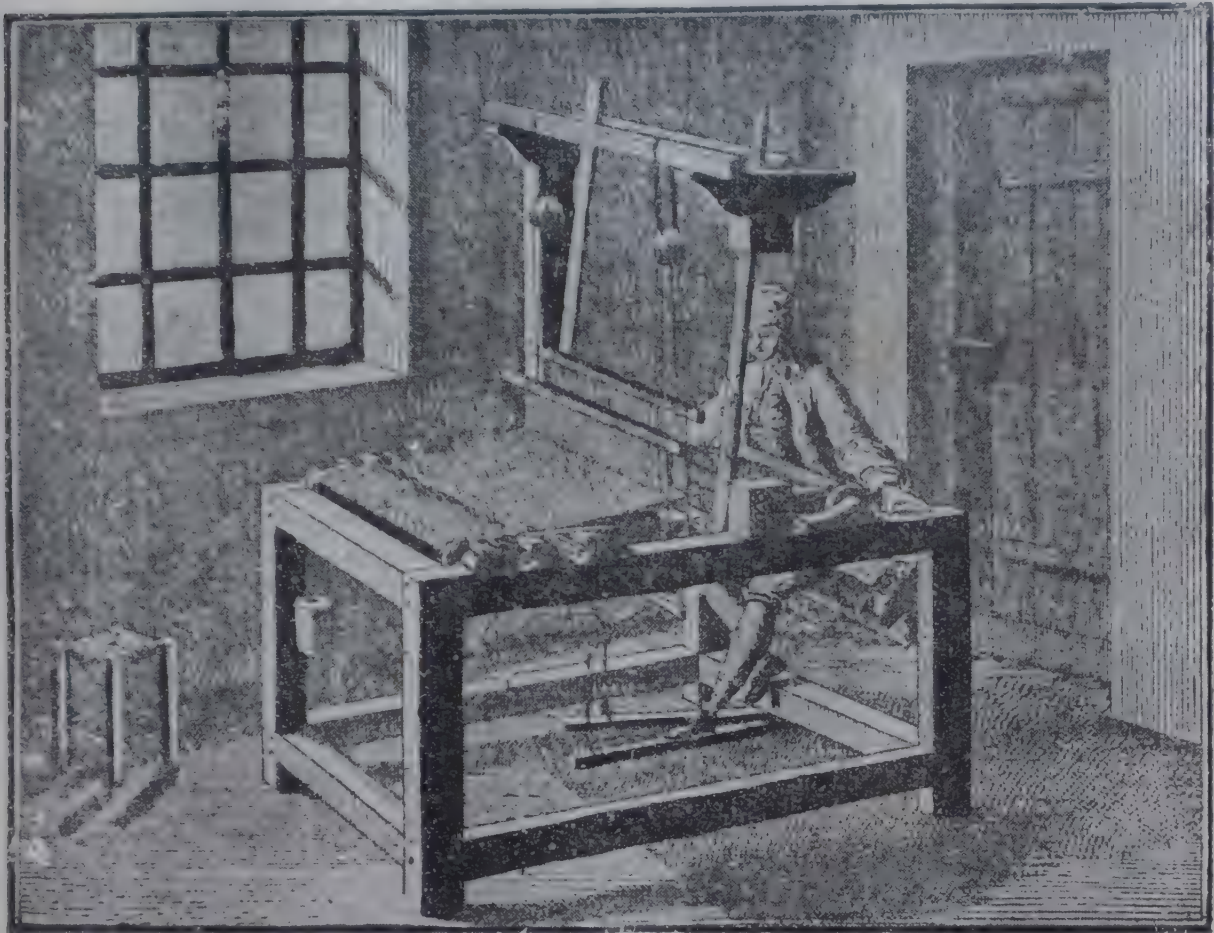
SPINNING BY HAND

woollen cloth, China for its silk and pottery, Toledo in Spain for its swords and knife-blades. People were willing to pay high prices for these things when they were brought by traders. The makers tried to produce larger quantities as the demand grew. To do this they had to improve the tools they used, as well as increase their skill.

When the British began to colonize North America they found that cotton could be grown very well in the warmer parts of that continent. It was also discovered that the damp climate of the north-west part of England (the county or province called Lancashire), though much too cold for cotton growing, was very good for spinning the cotton thread and weaving it into cloth. The cloth could be sold at a good profit because people were already paying high prices for the fine cotton cloth brought all the way from India. So the Lancashire people began to make cotton cloth from cotton brought from America. Owing to the



demand, men began to try to find a way of making cloth in larger quantities than the hand-spinners and hand-weavers could make it in their cottages. Rich men began to hire the services of spinners and weavers, who worked on hand-loom fitted up in

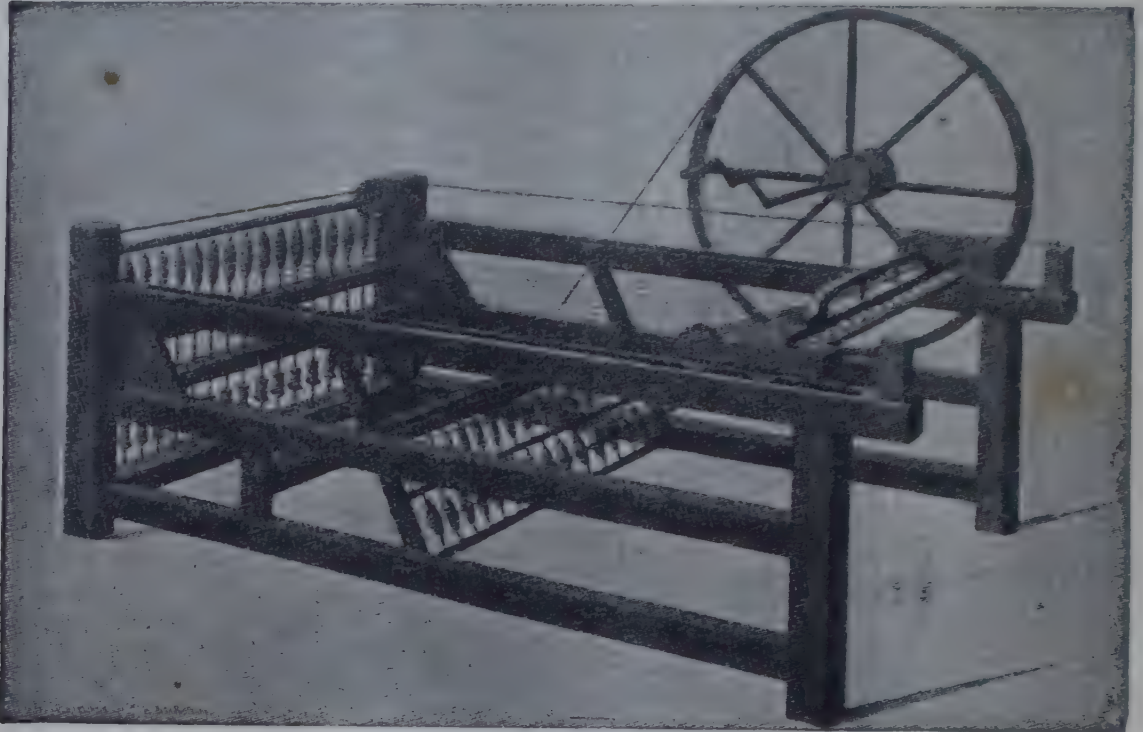


WEAVING BY HAND

rows in big buildings called 'factories'. Instead of each man selling whatever he had made, the weaver was paid a fixed amount as wages, and if the factory-owner could get weavers to work for smaller wages, or to work longer hours and make more cloth, he could make more profit. Thus the factory-system caused great hardship to the people who made things in their own homes—the workers in the cottage industries. If they wanted to get work, they had to leave their village homes and live near the factories. Thus big factory-towns began to spring up, in which hundreds of poor workers had to live, crowded together. This was the first step of the great change that we call *The Industrial Revolution*.



The next step was the improvement of the machines so that more cloth could be made by fewer workers. In 1766, a Lancashire man named JAMES HARGREAVES invented the 'spinning-jenny', a

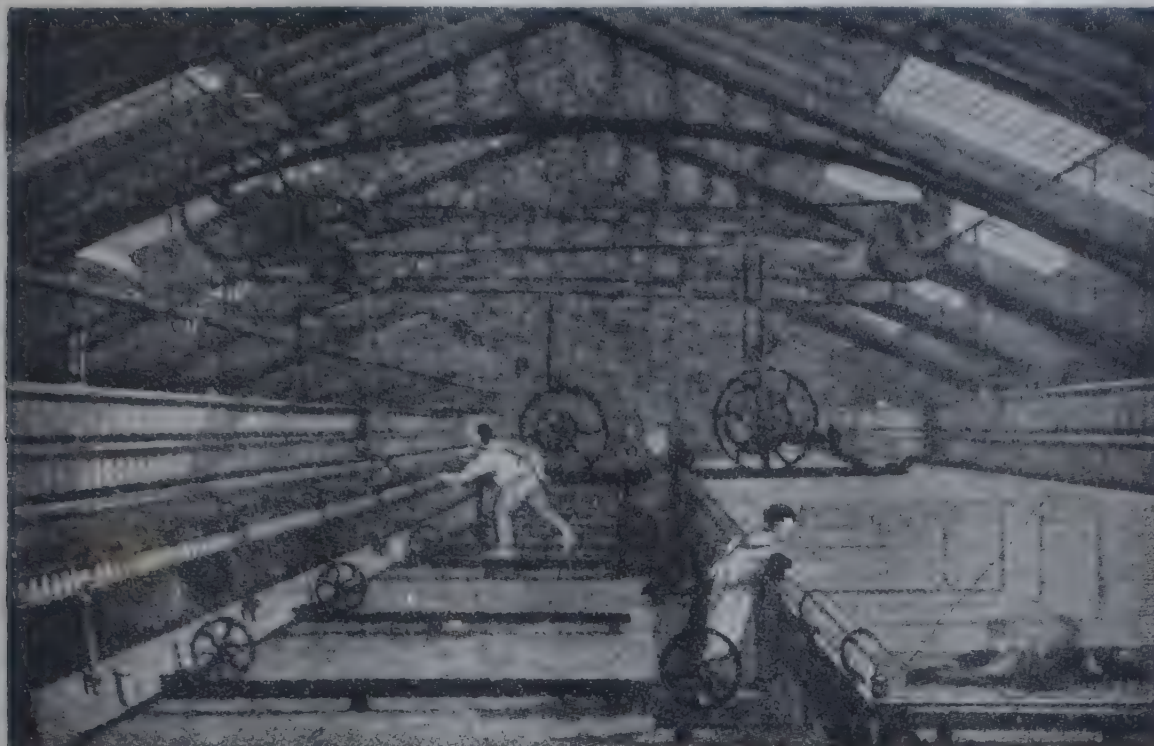


HARGREAVES' 'SPINNING-JENNY'

frame on which a large number of spindles could be worked at the same time by one man turning a handle. A few years later this was improved by another Lancashire man, ARKWRIGHT; he found that the threads could be made much stronger if they were passed between rollers which pressed the fibres together. Arkwright built factories where rows of his machines were worked at the same time by the power of a wheel turned by the force of a running stream—a water-wheel. You must remember that water and the force of the wind, used in windmills, were the only kinds of mechanical power known at this time. The use of steam and electricity had not then been discovered.

Another important invention was now made by a man named EDMUND CARTWRIGHT. This was the making of a power-loom, that is a weaving-machine worked by mechanical power, instead of by hand. By the use of this, large quantities of cloth could be

made in factories by machines which needed very few men to look



SPINNING BY MACHINERY

after them. This again was good for the factory-owners and bad for the weavers.

#### EXERCISES

1. Why did the British Empire develop in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
2. What inventions helped to cause the Industrial Revolution?

### SECTION 30 : THE POWER OF STEAM

[Key-Question 47 : *How was the steam-engine invented, and to what uses was it put ?*]

§ 47. Then came the final step in making things quickly and in huge quantities. This was the use of the *steam-engine* for working the machines in the factories.

Steam-engines were already being used for pumping water out of coal-mines. It was very troublesome to do this by hand-labour, for, as the mine went deeper, the pumping became more and more difficult.



The first really good pumping-engine was made by a Devonshire blacksmith named THOMAS NEWCOMEN. In 1705 he brought out a form of pumping-engine which was soon widely in use for pumping the water out of coal-mines.



POWER LOOMS IN A FACTORY

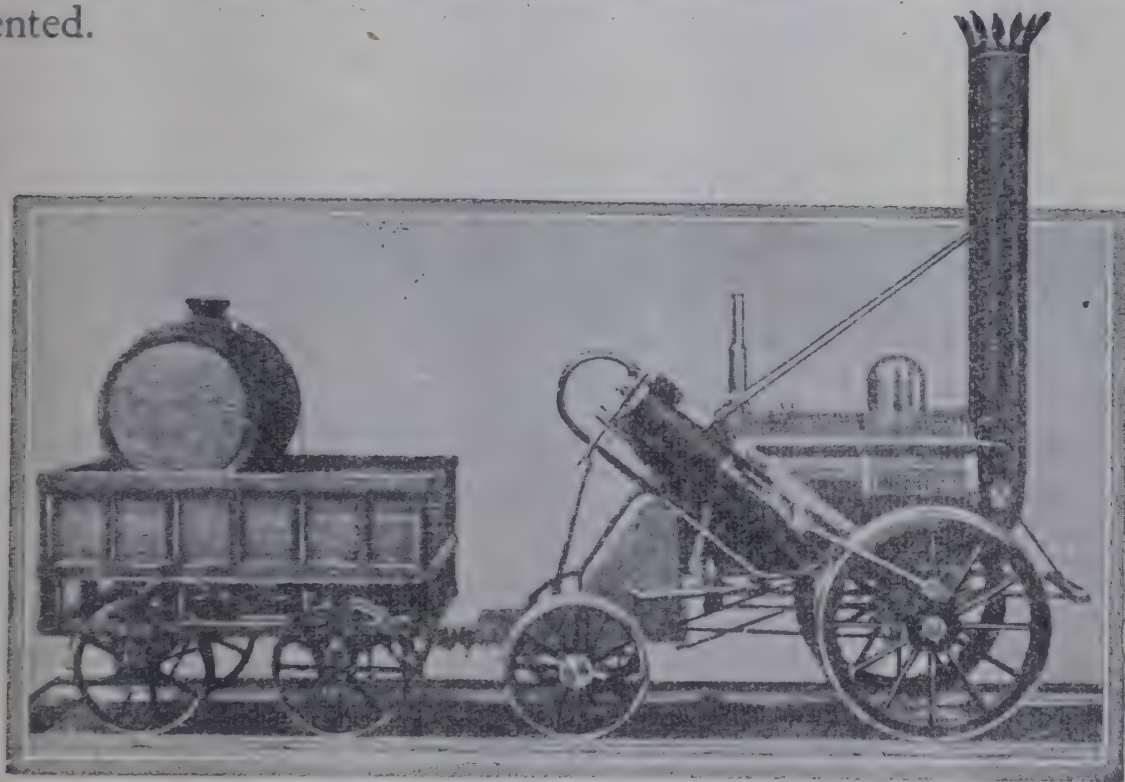
In 1765 it happened that one of the Newcomen engines needed repairing. It was given to JAMES WATT, then an instrument-maker to the University of Glasgow, to put right. Watt began to think how the engine could be improved. By 1774 he had made an engine which worked much better. It could be used not only for pumping, but also for driving machinery in the factories, and for turning a paddle-wheel to move ships through water. It was eagerly taken up by the factory-owners for working their spindles and looms, for it could do the work of hundreds of men, without ever needing rest, and it was much more powerful than the water-wheel.

In 1801, one of Watt's engines was fitted into a boat; it turned a paddle-wheel fixed at the back. This was the first steam-boat.



A few years later an American, Robert Fulton, also made a number of successful steam-boats fitted with Watt's engines. The first steamship to cross the Atlantic Ocean was an American one. The early steamships all had paddle-wheels (the propeller was invented later) and were fitted with sails also, in case their engines broke down.

When the steam-engine was fitted to a carriage on wheels, it became a locomotive (i.e. an engine which moves from one place to another by its own power). The idea of running trucks on rails, instead of on an ordinary road, had already been invented. Trucks loaded with coal were first made to run along lines of wooden planks. These wore out very soon, so flat plates made of iron were used at a coal-mine in England in 1776. Then came the idea of making L-shaped rails; and finally that of making the *flanges* of the wheels L-shaped, so that they would not run off plain rails. Meanwhile, the first steam-locomotive had been invented.



STEPHENSON'S 'ROCKET'

In 1801, a man called RICHARD TREVETHICK was working in a tin-mine in Cornwall. He fitted one of Watt's engines into a truck which ran on an ordinary road. Then in 1804 he made a similar



locomotive to run on rails. About the same time a young man was working at a coal-mine near Newcastle. He was the son of one of the fire-men at the mine. The family was so poor that they could not afford to send the boy to school; he had to work to add something to the small wages of his father. The boy was GEORGE STEPHENSON. His job at the mine was to look after a fixed engine which pulled trucks of coal up a hill by means of a rope. Fortunately, George was not content just to do that. He started thinking how he could make a machine to do the work better, a travelling engine which would pull the trucks up the hill on rails. In 1815 he succeeded. Soon, many of the mines began to use his steam-locomotives for pulling their trucks of coal. 'But if a locomotive can be used to pull trucks of coal, then why not to pull trucks of passengers?' people began to ask. So a railway was made by George Stephenson in 1825 to carry passengers between the English towns of Stockton and Darlington. Its first engine can still be seen standing at Darlington railway station.

In 1829 it was decided to build a railway between the big cities of Liverpool and Manchester. It was announced that a competition would be held to choose the best locomotive for this railway. A prize of £ 500 was offered to the engineer whose locomotive could most swiftly pull a train of loaded trucks over a course 70 miles in length. Four inventors sent their engines. Stephenson's engine was called 'The Rocket', and it was the first to be tried. It completed the course successfully, and when the trucks were detached the locomotive by itself went at a speed of 35 miles per hour. None of the other three engines could even complete the course, so Stephenson won the prize and became the engineer of the first important passenger-railway in the world, the Liverpool and Manchester Railway.

The new form of transport immediately became successful. Within ten years not less than two hundred and fifty railway companies had been formed in England alone! Railways began to be built all over the world. George Stephenson's name became famous. The final step in the Industrial Revolution had been taken.

Since the invention of agriculture, long, long ago (perhaps 10,000 years ago), there has been no change in man's way of living so great as the change that was caused in the nineteenth century A.D., through the use of machinery to produce goods in great quantities, and to transport them across lands and oceans to every country of the world. This change can truly be called a 'revolution'—not a political revolution (a sudden change in form of government, such as the French Revolution), but an industrial revolution—a sudden change in the way of making things, and a social revolution, a great change in the way of living.

We shall learn in the following chapters what problems this revolution made for the men who owned or worked the machines and for those who were thrown out of work owing to the growth of factories.

#### EXERCISES

1. Make a list of all kinds of 'transport' you can think of, and number them in order of their usefulness and speed for carrying (a) goods across the Himalayas; (b) passengers across the Pacific Ocean.
2. 'Since the invention of agriculture there has been no change in man's way of living so great as the change caused through the use of machinery.' Discuss this.

## 15

### *Saving People from Slavery and Suffering*

#### SECTION 31 : ABRAHAM LINCOLN : THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

[Key-Question 48 : *How did the slave-trade begin, and how did it become a cause of Civil War in the U.S.A. ?*]

§ 48. The most terribly cruel actions done by men to their fellow-men have probably been due to intolerance, to the fear of new ideas about religion, or about government. Nowadays, in most parts of the world, men have come to see the foolishness of trying to force



others to change their religion. But equally terrible cruelties have been caused for other reasons. They are the thoughtless cruelties caused by greed, by the desire to get rich quickly. The Industrial Revolution, which suddenly brought so many new opportunities for increasing wealth, was the cause of much cruelty of this sort.

The demand for tropical products such as sugar, spices, coffee, and tobacco, made it very profitable to grow them in South America and the southern part of North America. The cheapest method was to use slave-labour, and the easiest way to get slaves was to attack the negro tribes living along the west coast of Africa, and to carry them off in shiploads across the Atlantic. Merchants belonging to all sea-loving nations, particularly the Spanish, the British and the Portuguese, who had colonies in America, carried on this



SLAVE-AUCTION IN VIRGINIA

trade in slaves from about A.D. 1600 onwards. By the year 1790 there were nearly 700,000 negro slaves working in America.

But there were many people who felt ashamed that human beings should be bought and sold like animals; and at about the time of the French Revolution, laws were passed in England making

slavery illegal. The leader of the agitation against slavery was an Englishman named WILLIAM WILBERFORCE.

Other countries of Europe also passed similar laws soon afterwards.

In 1833 slavery was abolished in all British colonies and £ 20,000,000 was paid to owners so that all slaves might be set free.

But it was much more difficult for the Americans to pass such laws. The use of machinery for making cotton goods had very greatly increased the demand for raw cotton, and the southern states of the U.S.A. were now covered with big estates on which cotton was grown by slave-labour. Although it was against the law to carry slaves from Africa, many were still brought secretly (and with much greater cruelty owing to the need of hiding the slaves carried by the ships). By the year 1861 there were no less than four million slaves in the U.S.A. ! The southerners believed that it would be disastrous to them if they had to set these workers free. It was easy, they said, for the northerners and the Europeans to talk about freeing the slaves, for almost no slaves were employed in those countries.

The question of slavery thus became a very serious cause of quarrel between the northern and the southern states of the U.S.A. The Industrial Revolution had spread to America, and in the northern states which are rich in coal and iron, factory-towns were rapidly springing up, and the people were eager to adopt new and progressive ideas. In the southern states were many large estates owned by wealthy country-gentlemen, who were against any change in their way of living. They wanted to go on managing their estates, in their own way, with slave-labour. Presently they began to feel that the only way for them to avoid interference by the northerners was to secede (i.e., withdraw) altogether from the United States, and form a new independent nation of their own, called the 'Confederacy'.

The election, as President of the U.S.A. in 1860, of a man who was opposed to slavery, made the southern states finally decide to secede. The name of that President was ABRAHAM LINCOLN.



[Key-Question 49 : *Why did the northern and the southern states fight each other, and what was the result?*]

§ 49. Abraham Lincoln was born in 1809 in a log-cabin in the American state of Kentucky. That part of America was then mostly covered with forests in which Red Indians lived. Abraham was the son of a farmer who could neither read nor write. When he was seven years old his father decided to move across the river Ohio into the neighbouring state of Indiana. There he built a new hut of logs and cleared some more ground for farming. Again,



A LOG-CABIN

when young Lincoln was nineteen, the family moved further west into the state of Illinois, nearer the great river Mississippi. It was through the settlement of pioneer-farmers, like this, that the U.S.A. gradually spread towards the Rocky Mountains and finally to the Pacific coast.

In the meantime young Lincoln had taught himself to read and write. He first saw what slavery was like, when he took a shipload of goods down the river Mississippi to be sold in New Orleans, the great cotton centre. What he saw there made him determine



to fight slavery. On his return he was offered a job as manager of a small shop. Being one of the few people of the neighbourhood who could read and write, he was also given work in the local elections, and this gave him the idea of taking up politics. He stood as a candidate for membership of the state Legislative Council and was elected when he was only 27 years of age. Then he moved to Springfield, the capital of the state, and took up law as his profession. He worked hard, and ten years later he was elected to represent his state in Congress (the 'House of Commons' of the U.S.A.). He became famous for his strong support of the agitation against slavery. In 1860 he was chosen to be the Republican party's candidate for the presidency of the U.S.A. He was elected President, and four days after his election the first shot of the American Civil War was fired. The southerners had decided to fight the Union and to become independent. For the sake of forcing the southerners to set free the slaves alone, Lincoln would not have agreed to fight a terrible Civil War, in which brothers fought against brothers and fathers against sons. But there was a greater cause for which he was prepared to fight to the end. That was the question whether or not the United States should cease to be united. Lincoln believed that the Union must not be broken by the setting up of an independent Confederacy of



ABRAHAM LINCOLN



the southern states. To decide this, half a million Americans killed each other in one of the most destructive wars ever fought. The war went on and on for four long years. In the end the northerners won. But at what cost !

Lincoln was ready to treat the defeated southerners generously. But he never lived to see his plans carried out. A few days after the end of the war he was attending a celebration of the victory, when he was shot by a man who believed Lincoln had done him some small injustice. He died the next morning.

The south had to free the slaves, and the negroes were given the full rights of American citizenship—on paper. But this did not solve the problem of the negro population of America; and it has not yet been solved. There are now more than twelve million negroes in the U.S.A.—nearly one tenth of its whole population. Many of them have been well educated; some are wealthy: and none can be employed except for wages. Yet in some ways they are still made to feel that they are no better than the slaves that their forefathers used to be. Their number is increasing. Their future is one of the big problems America has to face.

*"South is avenged" - John Wilkes Booth*

#### EXERCISES

1. Why did slavery increase so rapidly in America, and how did it come to an end? What results did it leave behind?
2. Why is a civil war in some ways more terrible than any other sort of war? Why did Lincoln support the northern states in their fight against the south?
3. Read the book *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, which is the story of a negro slave in a southern state of the U.S.A.

### SECTION 32 :

#### PUTTING A STOP TO CRUELTY

[Key-Question 50 : *What evils did John Howard Elizabeth Fry, and Lord Shaftesbury try to get rid of?*]

§ 50. One of the signs that people are becoming more civilized is

when more and more men and women protest against cruelty of various sorts, and work to put a stop to it.

A hundred and fifty years ago, if a person was sent to prison he had a terrible time. The prisons were not kept clean: there were no rules about the prisoners' food: and if they fell ill (as often happened) there was no one to do anything for them. If the jailor in charge of the prison happened to be a kind-hearted man, he might help. But he was not obliged to do so. Prisoners who had no money and no wealthy friends therefore often died in prison. Nobody cared. Why should any care be taken of prisoners? Had they not been put in prison because they had done wrong? Sad to say, also, in those times people were sent to prison for very small acts of wrong-doing. A man could be hanged for stealing. Even little children were sent to prison sometimes.

JOHN HOWARD was a high official of one of the counties (provinces) of England, and he often had to send to prison people who had broken the laws. But one day he went to see the prison of his own town, Bedford. He was so shocked that he made up his mind to get rules laid down about the proper treatment of prisoners. He spent about fifteen years travelling to see the prisons all over England and in other countries of Europe. He wrote a book describing what he had seen, and as a result of this the laws about imprisonment and the treatment of prisoners in England were improved. Howard died in Russia from a fever which he caught when inspecting prisons there.



H P C

ELIZABETH FRY

Another kind-hearted person of the same kind was ELIZABETH FRY. Born and brought up in the midst of comfort and cleanliness,



when she heard how women were treated in the prisons of that time, she went to see the prisons for herself. The horrible sights she saw made her decide to spend her life in getting things improved. Beginning with work for the women-prisoners in London, she gradually helped more and more people, not only in England but in other countries too. She went to see the rulers of many countries in Europe and persuaded them to make better laws for the treatment of prisoners. She also worked for the help of beggars and other homeless poor people.

. Another woman, also from a high and wealthy family, gave her life to the improvement of the nursing of patients in hospitals. This was FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE, who went out to nurse soldiers wounded in the Crimean War between Britain and Russia. She found the hospitals in a terrible condition, with no medicines or arrangements for cleanliness. When she returned to England she did a great deal to arrange for the training of nurses for work in hospitals.

We have already mentioned in this chapter how WILLIAM WILBERFORCE worked to get laws passed to stop slavery. This was another great piece of work to make cruelty less.

But perhaps the greatest of all these workers was Anthony Ashley Cooper, who afterwards became LORD SHAFTESBURY. The worst cruelty in the new factories was in the treatment of young children, who were driven to work on very small wages for terribly long hours in the mines, the cotton-mills and other factories. Shaftesbury, though the son of a wealthy man, had been harshly treated by his own father, and half-starved at school. When he grew older, he did not forget what it felt like to be ill-treated as a child, and he made up his mind to work for children. He became a Member of Parliament when he was only 25 years old, and he worked for more than twenty years before he could persuade the House of Commons to pass a law to stop the employment of children in factories for more than ten hours a day. Imagine what it must have been like when little children were actually chained to the looms or other machinery and forced to work even for fifteen hours daily !

Then Shaftesbury set to work to stop the cruel treatment of children employed in the coal-mines. Here they were made to crawl along dark underground passages, pulling small trucks of



LORD SHAFTESBURY—THE CHILDREN'S FRIEND

coal. Another cruelty was the sending of children up tall chimneys to clean them—like Tom, the chimney-sweep, in the famous story *The Water Babies*.

From the helping of children employed in mines and factories, Shaftesbury went on to the helping of those who were homeless and hungry. In London and other great cities of that time there were thousands of children who lived by begging or stealing, as there are in Bombay and Calcutta even now. Shaftesbury got 'Children's Homes' started for the care of these children.

In recent times some of the finest work of this sort has been done by a great Norwegian scientist, DR NANSEN, who first became famous for his voyages of exploration to the north polar regions. After the First World War there were millions of people in Europe dying of starvation and disease. Nansen took up the great work of collecting money and food for helping them. At one time



about 12 million people in Europe were being fed at centres under his control.

### EXERCISES

1. Mention some of the chief causes of men's cruelty to other men and women. (Try to think of some others, besides those given in this chapter.)
2. How did Lord Shaftesbury help the children who worked in mines and factories?

## 16

### The Growth of Democracy

#### SECTION 33 : HOW PARLIAMENT GREW

[Key-Question 51 : *What is meant by 'absolute monarchy', 'limited monarchy', 'dictatorship', 'oligarchy' and 'constitutional government'?*]

§ 51. We have seen in Sections 26, 27 and 28 how the people of certain countries rebelled against the tyranny of kings who believed that they could do exactly as they pleased, whether their subjects liked it or not. But when the Government of a country is overthrown, something else has to be put in its place. Either a better king must be found or some other way of governing the country without a king must be discovered. This problem of good government is a very important one, and we must now study some of the experiments which were made to solve it.

Here are four words which we shall find very useful in our study. *Monarchy* means government by a king: *oligarchy* means government by a few people: *plutocracy* means government by the rich; *democracy* means government by the people.

In a monarchy there is only one ruler: he is the king. But there are various ways by which a king can rule. If he keeps all the power in his own hands, having ministers or officials who merely carry out his orders, we call it an *absolute monarchy*. But if the king governs the country with the help of an elected Parliament which makes the laws, and by means of ministers

chosen from among the members of Parliament, then we say that the government is a *limited monarchy*. When the government is carried on in a constitutional or regular way, according to the laws of the country, and not by the king himself but by a council of ministers, it is called a *constitutional monarchy*.

If there is an 'absolute' ruler who does not call himself 'king', we call that government a 'dictatorship' and the ruler a 'dictator'. Napoleon was really a dictator before he was crowned emperor of the French. Mussolini and Hitler were dictators. There were Parliaments in their countries, but the dictators did not rule as their Parliaments wished: they made the Parliaments say 'yes' to whatever they did, not allowing anyone to be a member who held opinions different from their own.

This, you will see, is a very important point. Unless a Parliament is *freely* elected, and can have members in it who need not agree with all the opinions of the king or ruler, it is not of much use. If all the members belong to the party of the ruler, and if the ruler chooses a few of them to assist him, the government will be an *oligarchy*, for the country will be ruled by a few powerful people, and the others will merely obey, whether they like it or not. Of course, you can have an oligarchy without any Parliament at all.

The way in which a Parliament is elected, and the people who elect it and who can stand for election, is therefore important. In order to learn something more about this we will run quickly through the history of the English Parliament, because it is one of the oldest in the world, and also because it has been used as a model by many other nations when they set up 'constitutional government'.

The elected English Parliament began in the following way. In the thirteenth century the nobles of England rebelled against a king called John, who was trying to make himself powerful. The nobles joined together and forced King John to sign an agreement. Among other things, the king promised that no man's property should be taken from him except with the consent of that man's equals (i.e. according to the law and not at the pleasure of the



*On the island of*

king), and that no man should be kept in prison without a legal trial. This agreement is called *Magna Charta*, or the Great Charter, and King John was made to sign it in the year 1215. It is very important because it gave rise to two ideas which have become the pillars of modern constitutional government, viz. : (i) that a *king must rule according to law*, and not just as he pleases ; (ii) that *laws must be made by representatives of those who are to be governed by those laws*, this is, *by the representatives of the people*. And in the reign of the very next king after John, a Parliament consisting of such representatives was called, to decide how much money should be provided for the king to spend. Many of the members of that Parliament were nobles, or lords, but there were also two representatives of each county or province, and two from each borough or city. And, as the interests of these people (the 'commons' or commoners) were different from those of the lords, they began to meet separately from the lords. That is how the two Houses of Parliament arose, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Commons, you see, was always an *elected* body of representatives, whereas the lords were those who were *born* as nobles or made nobles by the king. Some of the bishops, or chief men of the church, were also included in the House of Lords.

When the king wanted money, he used to send a message to the House of Commons saying that he wished to order the people to pay such-and-such taxes and that he expected the Commons to agree to pay them. This meant that, really, *the House of Commons had control over the supplies of money for the king*. And, presently, if the king did anything that they did not like, the Commons used to demand that the king should promise to stop doing whatever was wrong *before they would give him any more money*. This, you can see, acted as a very powerful check on the king's actions, and kings who believed in their 'divine right' to do as they pleased, did not like it at all. But it was not until the reign of King Charles I (who became king of England about twenty years before Louis XIV became king of France) that the struggle became really serious.



[Key-Question 52 : *What happened when Charles I and James II defied the British Parliament ?*]

§ 52. Charles I wanted to behave like an absolute monarch, and he refused to ask Parliament's permission to collect taxes: he said it was his right to take them, and he tried to do so. When the House of Commons objected, he sent his soldiers to arrest the chief members. Then he ordered the Parliament to go away, refused to allow it to hold its meetings, and tried to rule the country without it. *Charles needed money badly as he wanted to rule France*

But Parliament was too strong to put up with such treatment. It also organized an army, and there was a civil war (1642-8)—the king against his Parliament, with most of the nobles on the king's side (though not all), and most of the townspeople on the side of the Parliament. For four years they fought, and in the end the *king was defeated* and taken prisoner. He was brought before the judges—a king judged by his own subjects! Because he would not rule according to the law, but claimed the right to do as he pleased, Parliament ordered that he should suffer the punishment of a traitor to the country—the punishment of death. He was beheaded publicly in 1649. This was a terrible blow to absolute monarchy.

It is interesting to know what happened afterwards. For the next eleven years England tried the experiment of being a republic. The President (or 'Lord Protector', as he was called)

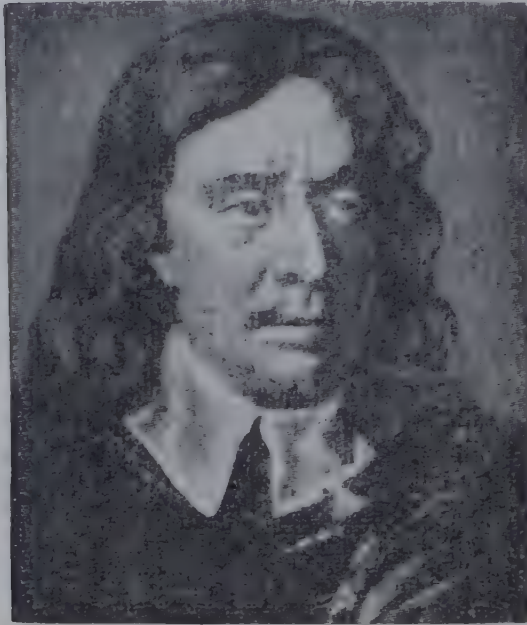
was OLIVER CROMWELL, the man who had led the Parliament to victory. But the experiment was



CHARLES I



not a success. Cromwell was a good man and a strong ruler, and while he lived there was no rebellion. But those who assisted



OLIVER CROMWELL

him were as tyrannical and intolerant as the king's men had been. In religion they tried to force everyone to accept their own extreme Protestant views. When Oliver Cromwell died in 1658, his son Richard became Protector. But he was a weak man and within a year there was a movement to put a king on the throne again.

In 1660 the son of Charles I, who had been living under the protection of Louis XIV in France, was invited to come back and was

placed upon the throne as Charles II. Unlike his father, he took good care not to displease Parliament. He said that he did not want to 'go on his travels again'! He was on the throne for 25 years. When he died, his brother came to the throne as James II, and he was not so wise as Charles II. He followed the footsteps of his father and tried to do as he pleased. He had not learned by his father's experience that he could not do that as king of England. He was a Catholic and he tried to force his religion upon others. The people of England had had enough of that. Parliament invited William of Orange, a Dutch prince who had been fighting against Louis in Holland, to accept the throne of England because his wife was a daughter of James II. This time there was no civil war. James II ran away—he was allowed to escape—to France, where Louis gave him protection. It was a bloodless revolution. And because William owed his throne to Parliament, he ruled according to the laws made by Parliament, and not as he pleased. England has never had any more absolute monarchs since then. It is what we call a 'constitutional monarchy' ruled by 'Parliamentary government'.

## EXERCISES

1. Why was King Charles I beheaded?
2. Why did England not remain a republic?
3. In what ways were the English Revolutions of 1642-85 different from the French Revolution?

## SECTION 34 : THE 'MIDDLE CLASS' : THE REFORM BILLS : GLADSTONE

[Key-Question 53 : *How did the British Parliament become completely representative of the nation?*]

§ 53. Throughout the previous lesson we have been talking about 'Parliament'. But who exactly were the members of Parliament? Could *anybody* become a member? The answer is 'No'. There was no rule that only rich men or men in high positions could be elected, but it was impossible for a very poor man to become a member of Parliament because it was too costly. Members of Parliament were not paid any salary at that time. So only those who had enough money to live in London without doing other work could possibly be members. In this way the government of the country by Parliament was really government by the rich. It was *plutocracy*.

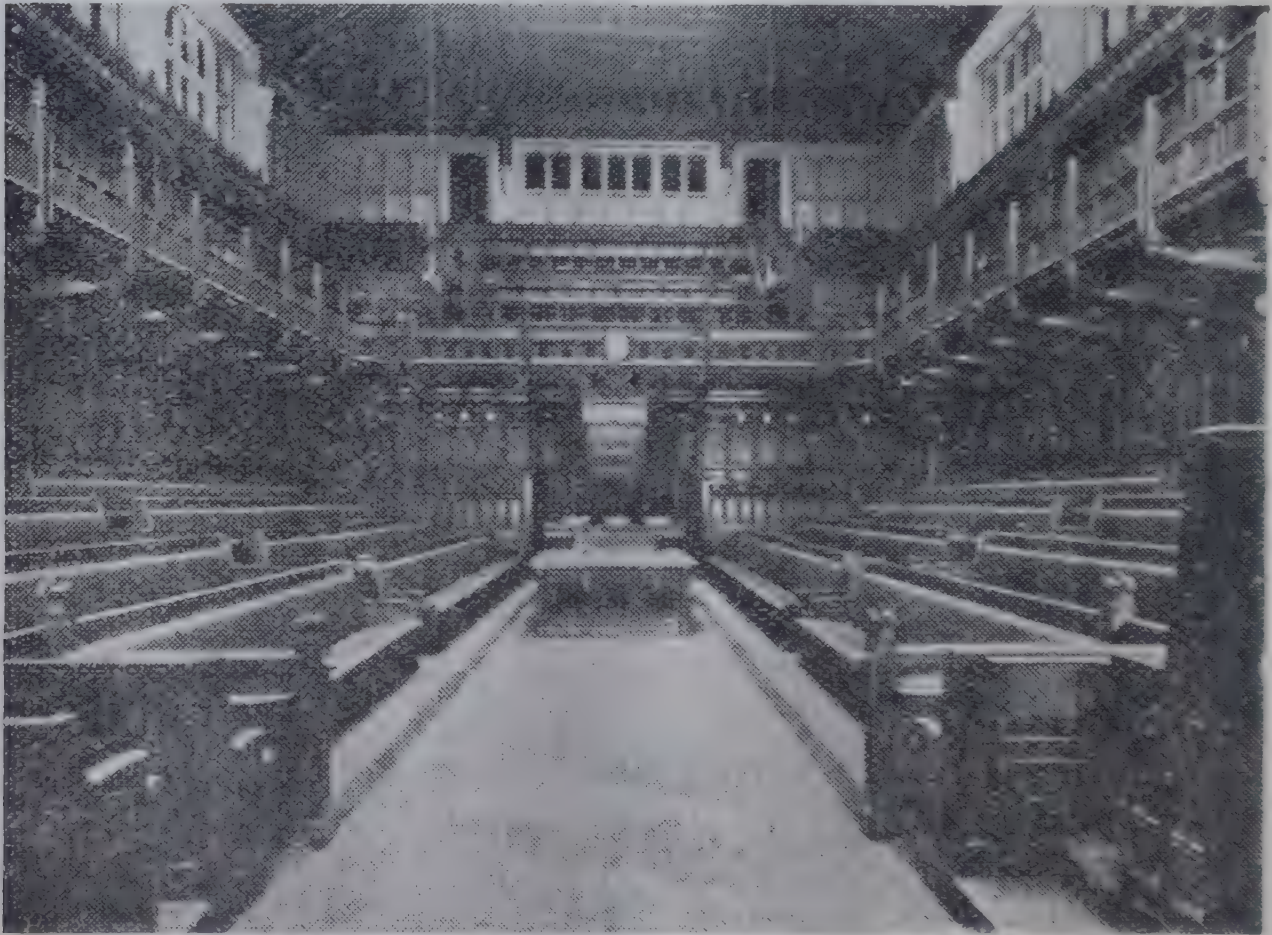
This is one of the reasons why the British Parliament was willing to spend money on costly wars to protect the British colonies, and to prevent other nations from interfering with British trade. Many of the members themselves got money through shipping and trade, or from business which needed raw materials grown in the colonies (such as cotton, tobacco, etc.).

But after the Industrial Revolution England became a much wealthier country. There were many more people who were fairly rich. Many small factories, trading businesses, and all sorts of shops were started, and the people who owned them and managed them were neither poor nor very rich. They were the people of 'the middle class'.

The 'middle class' people were usually well educated—or educated as well as it was possible to be in those times, for there were then no schools run by the Government. All schools were



run either by the Church or by private schoolmasters. In many cases children were taught by teachers at home. These educated people soon began to think that 'plutocracy' was not satisfactory, because they had little or no chance of getting their representatives into Parliament. An agitation therefore began for the 'reform' of Parliament. Parliament at that time was really representative only of the richer people, because only the rich people of the country and the more important people of the towns were allowed to vote at the elections, while many of the new towns had no representatives at all. It was now proposed that the vote should be given also to the 'middle class' people.



NEW HOUSE OF COMMONS (1951)

After a big struggle—which nearly came to a civil war—the FIRST REFORM BILL was passed in 1832. It was the new Parliament, elected after this reform, which abolished slavery and passed the bills stopping the cruel employment of little children in factories.



But the Government was still not really a 'democracy', or government by the people, for there were no representatives at all of the 'working class', that is the people who earn their living by working with their hands, in factories and shops, in loading and unloading ships, and in farming. It was not until 1867 that the vote was given to some of these when the SECOND REFORM BILL was passed.

The result of having a Parliament more fully representative of the whole nation was that new laws were passed which helped to improve the condition of the people in several more ways. Under the great Prime Minister of the Liberal Party, W. E. GLADSTONE, the first Education Bill was passed, setting up free national primary schools. It was Gladstone, too, who first tried to give self-government to Ireland, and it was at this time that the first great experiment in *Dominion self-government* was tried and proved successful, when Canada became a Federal Dominion in 1867.

Members of Parliament began to be paid salaries in 1911. The vote was not given to women until 1918, and in 1928 it was extended to all citizens over 21 years of age.

[Key-Question 54: *What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of Parliamentary government?*]

§ 54. There are several advantages of Parliamentary government. The first is that it prevents a king, or any strong leader, from becoming a tyrant. Parliament possesses 'the power of the purse', that is, the people cannot be taxed without Parliament's permission, and all money to be spent by the king and his Government has to be granted by Parliament every year. Also, if anything wrong is being done by the ministers, or by any responsible person, or in any department of the nation's life and work, it is certain to be made known. It is then discussed in Parliament and, in course of time, is set right.

But it is here that there are also disadvantages in Parliamentary government. It is very slow. It is not a good system for getting things done quickly. It takes Parliament a long time to make



new laws. A large number of members want to make speeches, and there are many delays. Such delays are very harmful to the nation when there is a very serious difficulty to be overcome, such as a famine, or an invasion, or some such dangerous happening. Experiments are now being made in various countries to discover a way of getting the work of the nation done more quickly.

Every citizen of a nation has both rights and duties. Parliamentary government has helped a great deal to guard men's rights, and to prevent kings and dictators from taking them away. Strong rulers always think more of the duties of the people to obey them, than of the rights of the people to be well governed. That is why dictators, such as Mussolini and Hitler, hated Parliaments and democracy. One of the big remaining struggles of modern man is to find a way of making everyone *do his duty without taking away his necessary rights*. Democracy is 'the government *of* the people, *for* the people, *by* the people'. We have to find out how to make this into the government of the people for the good of *all* the people, by the people who can be trusted to govern *well*. This is one of the problems which you will have to help to solve in India.

#### EXERCISES

1. Write down the various stages of growth of the English Parliament, showing how it was changed and when.
2. What other methods of government have you heard of besides Parliamentary government? What are their advantages and disadvantages?

## 17

### *Discoveries of Science*

#### SECTION 35 : THE CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD : THE LAWS OF GRAVITATION : THE THEORY OF EVOLUTION

[Key-Question 55 : *What are the 'Laws of Nature' and what did Darwin discover ?*]

§ 55. When your grandfather was a boy at school, students were

not encouraged to ask questions. It is different now. Children are encouraged to ask 'Why?' and 'How?' When they ask such questions their parents or teachers try to answer them. They do not tell the children: 'God made it so: don't ask why'; or, 'That is the truth, written down in our holy books.' That is what your grandfather was told, if he asked questions.

'Science' (a word which means 'knowledge') is the name given to all the subjects which answer the questions 'Why?' and 'How?'. Boys and girls now begin to learn something of science even when they are quite young, and many of them become scientists when they grow up. The result of this is that there are now thousands of people in every country trying to find out the answers to 'whys' and 'hows', and almost every week there is a new discovery. For example, medical scientists have recently discovered medicines which can quickly cure dangerous illnesses such as malaria, typhoid, pneumonia<sup>1</sup> and other fevers.

But if you want to cure a disease, you must first know what is the real cause of it. If people believe that malaria and small-pox are caused by 'the evil eye' or by the anger of a god or an evil spirit, they will try to cure the disease by magic rather than by quinine or vaccination. So the most important discoveries, at the beginning, are the discoveries of the 'Laws of Nature' or *how* things happen.

One of these important discoveries was the 'circulation of the blood'; that is, the work of the heart in pumping the blood all over the body through our arteries and veins. This discovery was made by the Chinese more than two thousand years ago, but the knowledge never reached the west. It was discovered again in 1628 by DR WILLIAM HARVEY, the doctor of King Charles I (the king of England who was beheaded by his own Parliament—see § 52).

Another very important discovery was that of the 'laws of gravitation' (or why things fall towards the earth). This was

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<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'new-mo-neä'.

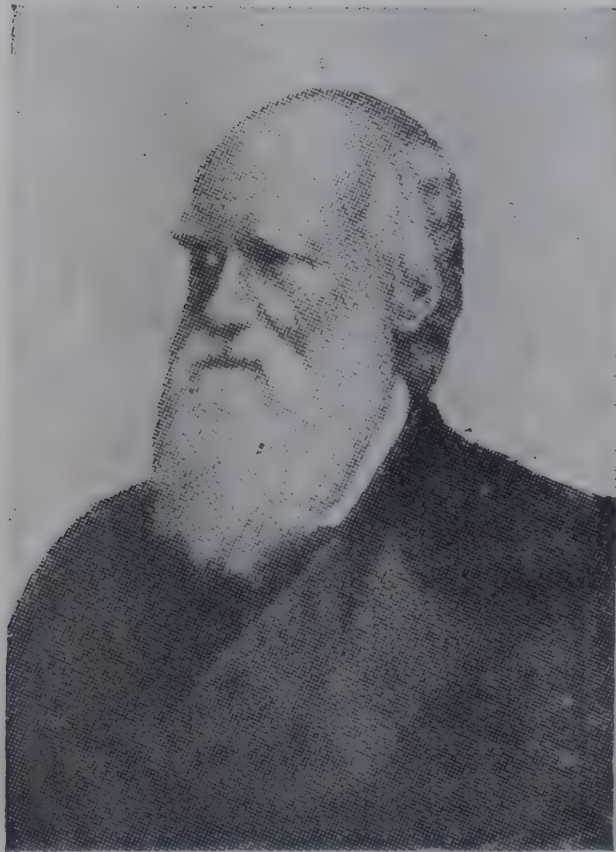


discovered by the great English mathematician, SIR ISAAC NEWTON, about the year 1700.

A very great discovery was made about 1859 when CHARLES DARWIN published his book *The Origin of Species*, in which he explained the 'theory of evolution'.

Charles Darwin did not like school. In the schools in England at that time the boys were taught a great deal of Latin and Greek, which they had to memorize—just as the boys in our old Sanskrit and Arabic schools in India had to do. No science was taught. But Charles was interested in collecting various sorts of stones, and flowers, and even beetles and other insects. He wanted to find out *why* there are so many different sorts of plants and animals, and *how* they have become different, and *why* they are not all alike.

Charles's father and grandfather were both doctors of medicine. So in 1825 he was sent to Edinburgh University to study medicine.



CHARLES DARWIN

After two years, he decided to give up medicine and take up the subjects in which he was really interested, botany and zoology. For this he went to Cambridge University. In 1831 he got the opportunity which was the turning-point in his life. The British Government wanted to get correct information about the coastlines and harbours of islands in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. So a ship, named *The Beagle*, was sent out with a party of scientists to get all the required information. Darwin was offered the post of zoologist on this ship.

For five years he went from island to island, and was thus able to

make a great collection of different sorts of plants and animals. This was just what he needed for his work of finding out how plants and animals have developed differences, or 'variations' as Darwin called them.

When Darwin got home he began to work on his theory. In brief it was this: Long, long ago (perhaps millions of years ago) there must have been only a few species (sorts) of plants and animals. But different parts of the world have different kinds of climate and surroundings, so only those plants and animals will increase which are helped by that climate or those surroundings. The other species will die out. For example, on the island of Madeira (near the north-west coast of Africa) Darwin found 550 different sorts of beetles. Most beetles can fly, but Darwin found in Madeira 200 kinds of beetles which could not fly, and many of the common flying beetles were not found there. What was the reason for the absence of flying beetles in Madeira? Darwin worked out this answer. Madeira is in the region of the strong westerly winds, and beetles which could fly were quickly blown out to sea by the strong wind, and were drowned. Those which could not fly were saved, and increased. So Madeira has mostly non-flying beetles. This is known as Darwin's theory of 'natural selection', or how Nature selects (chooses) some sorts of plants and animals and causes them to increase in certain places, while others die out.

From this idea Darwin went on to another theory. In his later book, *The Descent of Man*, he says that Man has also developed through the process of Natural Selection. But I will leave that for you to study when you are older.

#### EXERCISES

1. Why must 'Laws of Nature' be found out and understood before a large number of inventions can be made?
2. What is meant by 'Natural Selection'?



## SECTION 36 :

## VACCINATION : CHLOROFORM : ANTISEPTICS

[Key-Question 56 : *How was vaccination<sup>1</sup> discovered ?*  
*Who discovered the X-rays ?*]

§ 56. Just before the year 1800 an important discovery was made by an English doctor named EDWARD JENNER. The disease called smallpox was then common in England, and it was difficult to cure. Most people who caught the disease died of it. Jenner's home was in a village and one day he heard a dairymaid say : ' I cannot get smallpox because I have had cowpox.' This made him think. He found out that it was true. Cowpox is a disease of cows, similar to smallpox but not nearly so serious. If human beings catch



EDWARD JENNER

that disease, they are almost certain not to get smallpox. Jenner did not know why and he could not find out. But it was a fact. The work of a dairymaid (milking cows) makes it very likely for her to get cowpox. But by that she was saved from getting smallpox. Jenner made up his mind to do a dangerous experiment. He took some of the matter from a cowpox sore and put it into the veins of a boy. The boy developed cowpox, and soon got

well again. Then Jenner took some matter from a smallpox sore, and put it into the body of the same boy. He did *not* get smallpox. This was how 'vaccination' was discovered. It is used all over the world now, and smallpox has entirely disappeared in the British Isles and many other countries.

But Jenner never knew *why* a person who has had cowpox cannot get smallpox. This could not be found out until another discovery had been made. This discovery was not made until about 50 years later when a German botanist, FERDINAND COHN, discovered with

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced 'vax-in-à-shun'.

the help of a microscope the existence of very tiny living things in air and water. These are what we call 'bacteria'. Cohn did not actually discover that bacteria are the causes of some diseases: that was done by LOUIS PASTEUR, a Frenchman. When looking through a microscope at drops of blood taken from persons suffering from diseases such as typhoid, cholera, pneumonia, etc., he observed certain objects of the blood, which were not seen in the blood of healthy persons. He found that these were the 'germs', or seeds, of the diseases. They were different in the cases of different diseases. The next thing was to find out how the disease germs get into the blood, and how to stop them from doing so, and how to kill them if they get in.

Pasteur found that some germs get into the blood through the air we breathe. Such are the germs of influenza, measles, chickenpox, smallpox, and tuberculosis (T.B.). Some get into us through the food and water we take; such are the germs of cholera, typhoid and dysentery. Some get into us through the bites of insects; such as the germs of malaria and plague. It will be clear from this that if we are very careful to breathe pure air, eat and drink clean things only, and avoid bites of mosquitoes, bugs, etc., we can avoid the danger of many of the worst diseases. How to do this is shown in the science of hygiene, or how to keep healthy.



LOUIS PASTEUR

It now became clear why vaccination prevents smallpox. When a few germs of cowpox are put into a man's blood, the blood corpuscles (you will learn more about these in your lessons on physiology) begin to make a substance which kills the cowpox germs. The same substance also kills smallpox germs; so, if the same man gets a few smallpox germs into his blood, they are killed and he does not get smallpox. But the same substance cannot kill the germs of other diseases. To kill the germs of cholera and



typhoid, a very, very small quantity of the germs of those diseases is put into the blood. The blood then makes a substance which kills cholera and typhoid germs. This is what is called 'preventive inoculation', that is something put into your blood to prevent you from getting a disease. To stop malaria, quinine is put into the blood. Quinine kills the malaria germs which have been put into the blood by a mosquito.

One of the most terrible diseases that Pasteur's discovery helped to cure is rabies, the disease caused by the bite of a mad dog. Nowadays, all over the world, the special hospitals or departments in which this disease is treated are called 'Pasteur Institutes'.

A wonderful discovery that has saved mankind from much pain was the discovery of *chloroform*, the substance which sends people into a deep sleep or unconsciousness, so that operations can be done on the body, and even parts can be cut off, while the patient is unconscious. Before this discovery was made, operations had to be done with the patient able to feel everything. Imagine how fearful it would be to have a leg cut off or a bullet taken out—or even a tooth—without any way to stop the pain!

The use of chloroform was discovered by a young Scottish Doctor, JAMES SIMPSON, in 1847.



LORD LISTER

But there was still another difficulty to overcome. It was soon noticed that even when an operation had been done successfully, and without pain to the patient, the patient often died, a few weeks later, from poisoning of the blood. JOSEPH LISTER, a young doctor working in a Glasgow hospital, made up his mind to find out the reason for this. After many careful observations Lister discovered in 1865 that the poisoning was due to germs in the air around us, and in water. These get into wounds, causing them to become 'septic', i.e. the flesh begins to rot or decay, and the poisonous matter passed into the blood. To prevent this, it was necessary to find some substance which would be 'anti-septic'. Lister found

that carbolic acid is such a substance: no germ can live in it, but it does no harm to the body, if it is put only on the outside and not in the mouth. By dressing the wounds of his hospital-patients with carbolic acid, Lister was able to save thousands of lives.

A more recent discovery which has been of great help to doctors is that of the wonderful rays known as 'X-rays'. They were discovered in 1895 by a German scientist named RÖNTGEN. These rays are so powerful that they can pass through solid substances which ordinary light cannot go through. Thus a bullet buried deeply in the body can be photographed and its exact position seen, so that the doctor can take it out more easily. Röntgen could not find out at first what caused these rays, so he called them 'X' rays, which means 'unknown' rays. He received the Nobel Prize for his work in 1901.

#### EXERCISES

1. How does vaccination prevent a person from getting smallpox?
2. What important discoveries were made by Cohn, Lister, Pasteur and Simpson?

## 18

### *Rivals for Empire and Trade*

#### SECTION 37 : GREAT PIONEERS :

#### CAPTAIN COOK : DAVID LIVINGSTONE

[Key-Question 57 : *What discoveries were made by Captain Cook ?*]

§ 57. The desire for more knowledge, which led Newton and Darwin, Harvey, Cohn and Lister to make their great discoveries, also made other men go out and explore the parts of the world still marked 'unknown' on the map. These parts were the whole of the central part of Africa, and all the lands and islands of the South Pacific Ocean.

The greatest explorer of the Pacific was CAPTAIN JAMES COOK. Cook's father was a Yorkshire farm bailiff, or what we should call



in India the *kamdar* of a big *jagirdar*. When he was twelve years old, James was sent to learn how to sell goods in a village shop, but he soon made up his mind that keeping a shop was not what he wanted to do. He decided to go to sea. His first voyage was as 'boy' on a ship carrying coal. He soon showed his worth, and when he was not much more than twenty years old he became 'mate'. When he was 27, he joined the British navy and rose to the position of captain in a very short time. He was sent on one



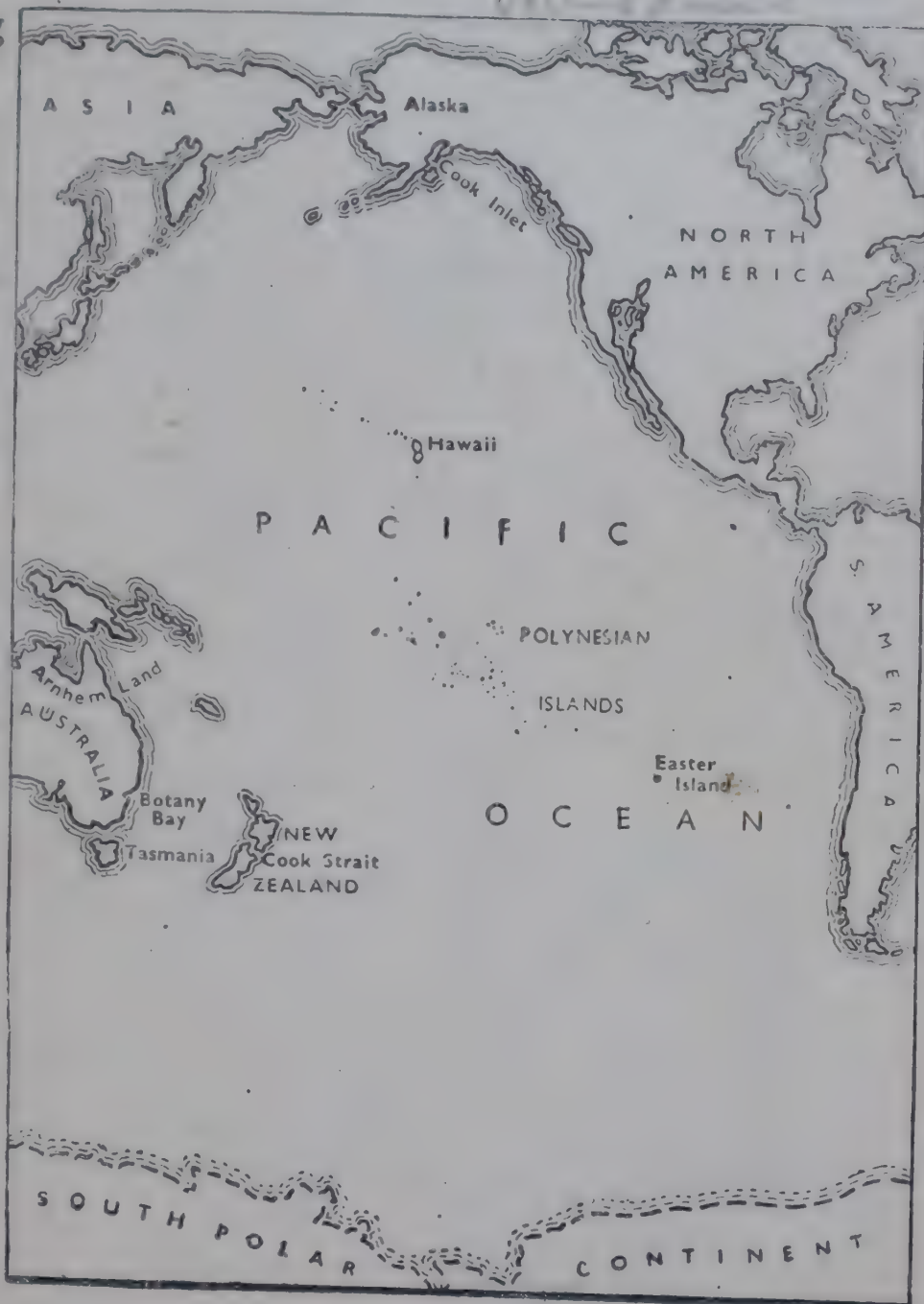
CAPTAIN COOK LANDING ON A PACIFIC ISLAND

of the voyages of discovery of coasts and harbours for the navy, as Darwin was. His work was so good that the great British scientific society, the Royal Society (which awards the title of 'F.R.S.'—Fellow of the Royal Society—to great scientists) invited him to take charge of an expedition of scientists to the Pacific Ocean.

On this expedition Captain Cook explored the coasts of New Zealand and of eastern Australia. He was not actually the first to have seen those lands, for they had been discovered earlier by the Dutch. But the Dutch did not explore the coasts fully or go inland at all, and New Zealand was thought to be part of a great south polar continent. Cook sailed right round the two islands

and between them (through what is now named Cook Strait), and then went on to Australia, where he landed at Botany Bay, near the place where the city of Sydney now stands. He named the land 'New South Wales'. 'Botany Bay' was so called because of the great number of new plants and flowers found there.

Returning to England, Cook was soon sent out again on another voyage of discovery. This time he was to try to discover the great continent around the South Pole. We know now that it is really there—though entirely covered with ice—but Cook was not able to find it, because all the sea round that continent is frozen over. But he discovered many



COOK'S VOYAGES

of the Pacific Islands which till then had been quite unknown, going as far eastwards as Easter Island (see map).

Captain Cook began his last voyage in 1776. This time he

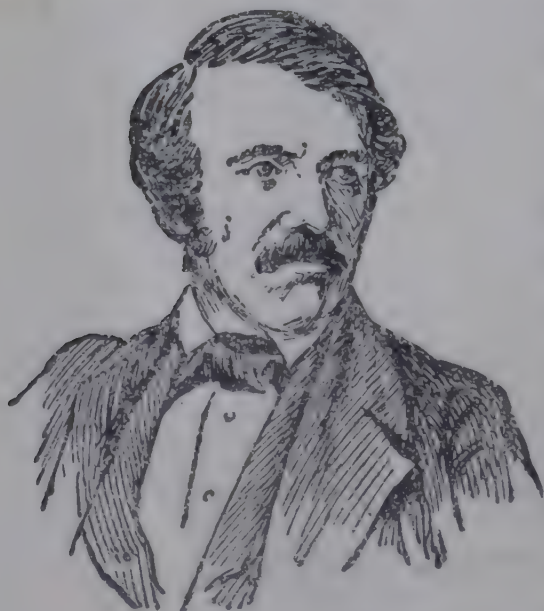


went first to the north Pacific, to try to find out whether there is a sea-way round the north of Canada into the Atlantic Ocean. He explored the coast of Alaska, where you will find Cook Inlet on the map. But he could not find a passage into the Atlantic there. He returned to the central Pacific Ocean and discovered the islands of Hawaii. Cook was a man who risked his own life fearlessly, and always tried to show friendliness to the people of the new lands he discovered. But this time he paid for his fearlessness with his life. The natives stole one of the boats belonging to his ship, and he went with a party of his men to get it back. He was suddenly attacked when getting into the boat, and fell dead into the sea, with a spear through his body. He was a great explorer and a great leader of men.

[Key-Question 58 : *Why did Livingstone go to Africa? What did he do?*]

*Born in 1813*

§ 58. Until a hundred years ago the continent of Africa was called 'The Dark Continent' because so little was known about it, except the coastal parts. The greatest explorer of the centre of Africa was DR DAVID LIVINGSTONE, a Scotsman. Livingstone's parents



DAVID LIVINGSTONE

were poor, and David had to help them from the age of ten by working in a cotton factory. But he was a great reader, and his reading made him want to do two things: first, to explore unknown lands, and second, to be a Christian missionary. Perhaps it would be more true to say that he wanted most of all to spread the Christian religion, and he chose an unknown part of the world in which to do that work; so he has become as famous an explorer as a missionary.

Thinking that he would be more useful if he was a trained

doctor, he studied medicine. When he was 27 years old he took his medical degree, and set out for Africa.

His first great discovery was the river Zambezi, with the waterfall named by Livingstone Victoria Falls. This is one of the



LIVINGSTONE'S VOYAGES

greatest waterfalls in the world; for, although the river Zambezi is not as broad as the river Niagara, the fall is twice as high. The



native name for the fall is 'the sounding smoke', because the great mass of falling water makes a tremendous noise, and the deep valley into which the river falls is filled with a cloud of spray, the small drops into which the water is broken by its 400-foot fall.

On a later journey Livingstone discovered Lake Nyasa. It was at this time too that he helped a great deal to show to the people of Europe how terribly cruel was the African slave-trade. This was at just the time when Lincoln was fighting against slavery in the U.S.A.

On his last journey Livingstone set out to try to find the source of the river Nile, and for five years he was not heard of. He spent those years in wandering around the great lake Tanganyika. In 1873 he died in his explorer's tent. His native followers loved and respected him so much that they carried his dead body all the way from central Africa to the coast, at Zanzibar, from where it was sent to England, to be buried in Westminster Abbey.

While Livingstone was exploring the dense forests of central Africa, other daring explorers were finding out about the interior of Australia. Here, the difficulties were of quite another sort. The centre of Australia is a great desert, and many brave explorers died of ~~first~~ in trying to cross it from north to south, and from east to west. We have no space here to write about them.

#### EXERCISES

1. Why did Captain Cook spend his life exploring the Pacific Ocean and what did he discover?
2. Why did Dr Livingstone spend his life in Africa? What useful results did such work produce?

### SECTION 38 :

#### IMPERIALISM : DISRAELI : CECIL RHODES

[Key-Question 59 : *What is 'imperialism' and how did it develop?*]

§ 59. Through the discoveries and explorations of men such as Captain Cook, Livingstone, and many others, the British Empire gradually grew and grew. Some parts of it also were taken by

conquest such as Canada and the Indian possessions from the French, and South Africa and Ceylon from the Dutch. A most important part, the New England colonies, was lost in the American War of Independence. But the British went on colonizing. The newly-conquered lands, such as Canada and South Africa, and the newly-discovered ones, such as Australia and New Zealand, soon had a growing population of British colonists. They were people who went out to those empty countries prepared for a hard life at first, and willing to make the new colonies their permanent home.

But other places now began to be added to the British Empire, for reasons quite different from those of exploration and colonization. Other nations, too, began to desire possessions overseas. This growth of 'nations' into 'empires' is a thing which we must now study. It is called the growth of *imperialism*.

Let us first try to understand why nations want to become empires. Why cannot the men who form a nation be satisfied with their own country? Why should they want to conquer other people's countries?

There are several 'factors' in imperialism, as in nationalism. The first factor is the pleasure that strong rulers have in extending their power. We may call this factor the *personal ambition of leaders*.

But leaders cannot do anything unless they can get people to follow them and to do what they say. Why are people willing to follow and even to go to war for the sake of having an empire? The reason is the second factor of imperialism. It is *economic necessity*. What does this mean?

'Economic' means 'concerning the making and the distribution of wealth, money or goods'. So 'economic necessity' means the need of making money or making goods. Why does this need lead to imperialism? We shall now see.

If the people of a country grow their own food and make just enough manufactured goods for their own use, they will be able to get on without trading with other countries. This is what most people did in the ancient times. The people of India did not know



anything about bicycles and railway-trains and radio-sets, so they did not want them. The people of Europe did not know about tea and rubber and silk; so they did not want those things. But when more people began to travel from one country to another, they heard about the good things of other countries, and they began to want to have them. When merchants brought those goods from other countries, they got high prices for them. So trade began, and increased year by year.

Now, as you have learned in Section 29, a very great change took place in Europe about 100 years ago. Machines were invented which could make things very quickly and cheaply. Cloth could be made in Lancashire, England; from cotton brought from the U.S.A.; and, because it was made so quickly and cheaply by machines, it could be sold in India at a lower price than Indian cloth which was made by hand in India. The British merchants began to sell their cloth all over the world. Other western nations then also began to get machines (they bought them from England at first, and later began to make them). After 1868 the Japanese also did the same. When a country has a great many factories in which it makes all sorts of manufactured goods by machinery, we call it an 'industrialized' country. By 1890 all the big western nations, and Japan, had become industrialized, and they began to compete against each other to sell their manufactured goods. The place where goods are sold is called a 'market'. So a *struggle for markets* began.

It was not only a struggle for markets: it was also a struggle for raw materials. If you want to make cloth, you must have cotton, or silk, or wool, from which to make it. If you do not produce enough cotton or silk or wool in your own country, you must buy it from another. So the industrialized nations also began to compete for raw materials.

Look at the map of Africa on page 167. There are only a few small countries in that great continent which are marked as 'independent', that is, not under the rule of some other nation. All the remaining part of Africa was taken by one or other of the European nations between 1880 and 1900. CECIL RHODES (after

whom Rhodesia is named) was the Englishman to whom the extension of the British Empire in South Africa is greatly due.



AFRICA AS DIVIDED AMONG THE EUROPEAN NATIONS BETWEEN 1880 & 1913

(1) MOROCCO : Arab kingdom mainly under French and Spanish protection and control. (2) TRIPOLI : under Turkish rule until 1911, then conquered by Italy and renamed Libya. (3) EGYPT : under Turkish rule until 1882, then British Protectorate. Independent kingdom since 1922. (4) ABYSSINIA : independent kingdom, conquered by Italy in 1936, restored to independence in 1941. (5) LIBERIA : independent Negro republic, first established for freed Negro slaves in 1847. (6) BOER REPUBLICS: conquered in 1900-2 by the British and now forming part of the Union of South Africa, a Dominion of the British Commonwealth.

Imperialism spread in another way too. When you want to



carry on trade with countries far away, you must be certain that your goods will arrive safely and as quickly as possible. If you are sending your goods by ship, you must have harbours in which the ships can safely stop during a long voyage, and where they can take on board coal and water and food, or have repairs done if necessary. As you have learned in Section 29, the British did most of their trading in ships; so the need for harbours was very great in their case. This is why so many islands and other places, scattered all over the world, were colonized by British traders, or conquered by the British navy. If you look at a map of the British Empire you will see that this is so. The *Suez Canal* which did so much to make the journey from England to India shorter, was made by a French engineer named DE LESSEPS and opened in 1869: but it is managed by a company of which half the shares were bought for the British Government by the great British Prime Minister BENJAMIN DISRAELI, Earl of Beaconsfield.

If your trade is overland trade, then you must have roads or railways by which it can be carried. The countries of the Russians and the Americans are so large that for a long time they did not compete for markets overseas, but they built railways from one side of their great countries to the other. The Germans wanted to trade with Turkey and India across the Middle East. Therefore they began to build a railway from Berlin to Baghdad, which might have been extended across Iran to the borders of Sind, if war had not prevented it. The real cause of that war was rivalry between two empires, the British Empire and the German Empire about which we shall learn in the next section.

#### EXERCISES

1. What is 'imperialism'? How and why has it grown?
2. Read how the Suez Canal was made, and describe its usefulness.

### SECTION 39: THE GERMAN EMPIRE AND THE FIRST WORLD WAR

[Key-Question 60: *Who united Germany and how?*]

§ 60. Perhaps you have noticed that, so far in this book, there has

been no mention of the German nation. We have read about the Spanish and the Portuguese, the Dutch and the British, the French and the Americans, but almost nothing about the Germans. Why is this? It is because there was no German nation until about 80 years ago.

In Section 25 we read about King Frederick the Second of Prussia. He was the king whom William Pitt helped to defeat the French in Europe, while the British defeated them in India and America. But Frederick was not the ruler of all Germany, but only of the northern part called Prussia. By his victory over France he made Prussia larger, and by the thorough training of the Prussian army he made himself one of the most powerful kings in all Europe. A hundred years after Frederick's death Prussia became the most important province of a United Germany. We must now learn how this came about.

It was almost entirely the work of Prince OTTO VON BISMARCK. Germany was at that time made up of a number of small independent states, the chief of which was Prussia. In 1862, Bismarck became the chief minister of King Wilhelm (William) I of Prussia. The first thing he did was to make a law that every healthy young man in Prussia must be trained as a soldier. In a few years Prussia had the best-trained army in the whole of Europe. Bismarck was then ready for his next step. He declared war on Austria, which, since the defeat of Napoleon, had been Prussia's chief rival for the leadership of the German states. In three weeks he completely defeated the Austrians. In the peace terms he forced them to agree that Prussia was the chief of the German states.



BISMARCK

France was at this time ruled by Napoleon III, a descendant



of Napoleon Bonaparte. This Napoleon thought that he would show himself to be as great a soldier as his ancestor Bonaparte had been. He did not want the Prussian king to become so powerful. He declared war on Prussia. This was just what Bismark wanted. Till then, the German states had never united as a nation. But now they united under the lead of Prussia to fight the French. In a few months the French army was badly defeated by the Prussians, and Napoleon himself was taken prisoner. Paris was besieged and forced to surrender. The French suffered a terrible defeat. They were forced to give up some of their country, the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, nearest to Germany. Also the Germans made them give huge sums of money to pay for the cost of the war. Then the German states, which had united for the war, decided to unite permanently, and King Wilhelm I of Prussia was crowned as German Emperor, in January 1871. Bismarck's work was complete.

[Key-Question 61: *What was Kaiser Wilhelm II's aim? Why did he fail?*]

§ 61. The Germans thus became a 'nation' about 300 years later than the other peoples of western Europe; but, when once united, they made the most remarkable progress. This was just the time when industrialization was taking place in western Europe. Germany, with the help of her clever scientists and inventors, at once took a leading place among the industrialized nations. German goods, especially machinery, metal goods of all sorts, chemicals, dyes and medicines, began to go all over the world. Germany too joined 'the struggle for markets' and for colonies in Africa.

At the same time it happened that Germany had an ambitious king — or rather, we must now call him 'emperor' — WILHELM II for he was both king of Prussia and emperor of Germany. He wanted Germany to be the most powerful nation in the world in every way, and with this aim he not only encouraged German trade and industry but also kept the German army and navy ready for immediate use.

The chance came in 1914. Austria was no longer the leader of the German peoples, but was the ally of Germany. Wilhelm encouraged the Austrian emperor to make Austria larger by seizing some provinces from her neighbour Serbia (now called Yugoslavia). But Russia and France were allies of Serbia, and they threatened to fight Austria if Serbia was invaded. The emperor Wilhelm believed that, by using his powerful armies quickly against the French, he could defeat them as his grandfather had done in the time of Bismarck. Therefore, as soon as Russia declared war against Austria, Wilhelm marched his armies through Belgium against France. The invasion of Belgium was contrary to the agreement made between Britain, France and Germany in 1830 when Belgium was separated from Holland as an independent country. Therefore, as soon as the Germans entered Belgium, the British joined the war on the side of France, Belgium, Russia and Serbia, against Germany and Austria.

The German emperor had not expected the British to join in; or, if he had, he had expected to be able to defeat the French before the British could go to their help. He very nearly did succeed, for the German armies came almost within sight of Paris before they were stopped by the allied armies of the French and British. In the east, the Germans and Austrians stopped the Russian invasion of Germany and Austria.

At that time aeroplanes had only just come into use and were not used for bombing. Tanks were not invented until 1916. So the German armies on the one side, and the French and British on the other, faced each other behind the long line of trenches and barbed wire defences right across the north of France. Neither of them could drive the other out. Meanwhile the Germans tried to defeat the British by sending submarines in large numbers to sink the British ships carrying food to England and supplies to the allied armies. Many ships were sunk, but in the end the British navy defeated the submarines, and in its turn began to besiege Germany, stopping all trade from outside Europe. Italy, Japan, and finally the U.S.A. joined the Allies, and in 1918 Germany had to ask for peace. The Emperor Wilhelm



fled to Holland, and the Germans set up a republican government.

### EXERCISES

1. How did Germany become a nation?
2. What caused the First World War, and what was its result?

## 19

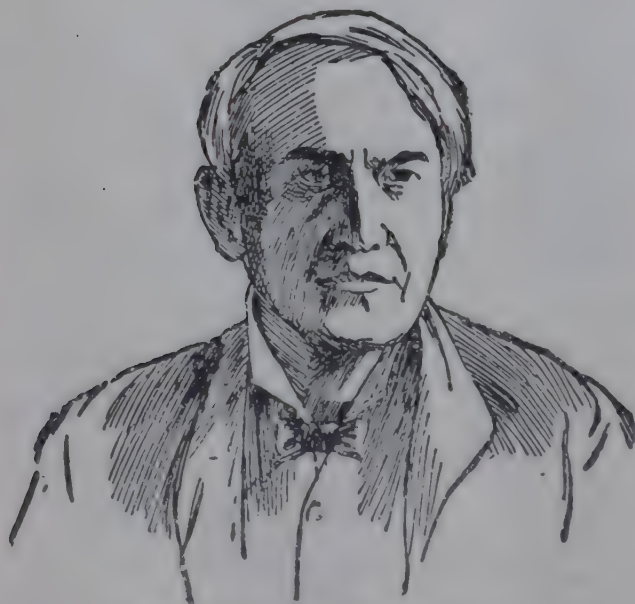
### *Wonders of Modern Invention*

#### SECTION 40: EDISON: MADAME CURIE

[Key-Question 62: *What inventions were made by Edison?*]

§ 62. We owe a larger number of useful inventions to THOMAS ALVA EDISON than to any other man who ever lived.

Edison was born in the U.S.A. in 1847. From childhood he was very much interested in experiments of all sorts. The story is



THOMAS ALVA EDISON

told that, when he was a tiny child, his sister came upon him sitting cross-legged in the garden with a very serious look upon his face. She asked him what he was doing. 'I'm sitting on a goose's egg,' he replied, 'to see whether I can make it hatch out as well as the old mother goose can!' Another story about his early experiments is that he gave one of his playmates a big dose of Seidlitz powder (a powder

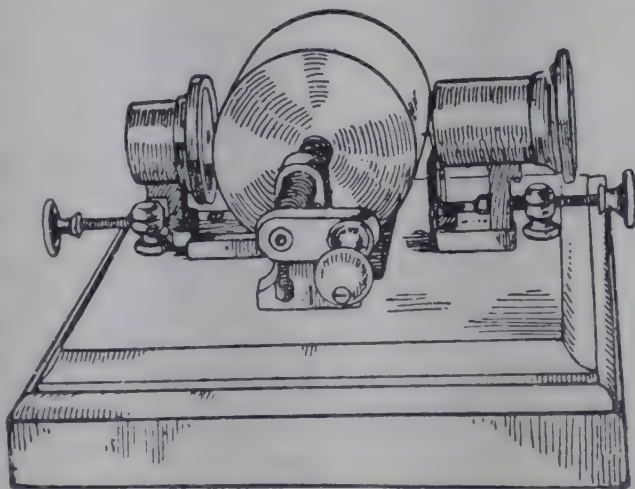
which, when mixed with water, produces gas), to see whether the gas produced inside the boy would lift him off the ground and enable him to fly! (If you do not know what the actual result

*All the age of 80 he became deaf. He lived to 86.*

was, you should look up 'Seidlitz' in your *Little Oxford Dictionary*.)

When he was only fourteen years old, Edison made up his mind to earn his own living, and he began to sell newspapers on one of the express trains. (American trains have a passage right through the train, along which people can walk from one carriage to the others, so Edison could go from compartment to compartment selling his newspapers.) But he was not content to do only that. The guard of the train allowed him to set up a tiny printing press in the luggage-van, and on this press he printed a little news-sheet of his own, which he sold to the passengers. And when he was not busy with this printing and newspaper-selling, he was making experiments in telegraphy, with a home-made telegraph which he had fixed up on the train.

It was his interest in telegraphy that got him his first good job, when he was 20 years old. The telegraph machines belonging to a big company in New York suddenly got out of order, and luckily for Edison he happened to be on the spot, seeking for a post. He quickly found out what was wrong and set the machines going again; and the company immediately employed him to look after all their telegraph-machines. But Edison was never content just to make money. He went on working at improvements of all sorts to make telegraphy more efficient. Through one of these improvements he got his first chance to set up a good laboratory of his own. One of his



EDISON'S ORIGINAL PHONOGRAPH

inventions caused a great saving to the company, and he was given a large sum of money for it. He now set up a laboratory of his own, and went on with more experiments.

He produced a duplicating machine, improved the typewriter (which had recently been invented), and then turned his attention



to the telephone. This had been invented by a man named GRAHAM BELL, but Edison improved it so much that it has now come into use all over the world. Then he invented the phonograph, the machine which reproduces speech and music, from which the gramophone has developed.

His next inventions were even more important: they were in connexion with electric lighting. Light produced by electricity was already in use on a small scale, but it had not become common because a suitable filament (i.e. the thin wire inside the glass bulb) had not been found. Edison made thousands of experiments to find the right substance, and he found it at last. His discovery has made it possible for electric light to be used everywhere where current is available.

His next invention was the kineto-scope,<sup>1889</sup> which was the forerunner of the cinema. And in 1912 he made the kinetophone, which joined the phonograph and the film camera and made talking pictures possible. All together he made more than 1,300 inventions before he died in 1931. (October 18<sup>th</sup>)

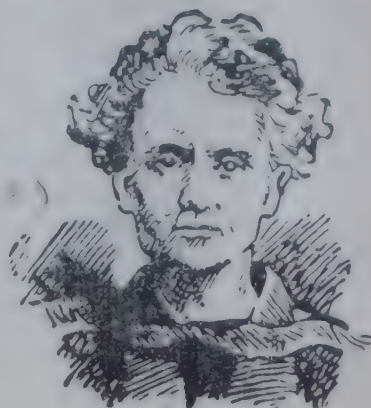
[Key-Question 63: *What was discovered by Madame Curie and what use did she make of it?*] *Real name = Marie*

§ 63. One of the greatest of all recent discoveries, that of radium, was made by a woman—MADAME MARIE CURIE. Daughter of a polish science-teacher, Marie had determined to take up science as her profession. While earning her living as a teacher of science in a Paris school, she studied under DR Pierre Curie, a young French scientist. In 1895 the teacher and his pupil were married. They had no money for a good laboratory, so they made one in an old, dark store-room, and three years later, after working almost day and night, it was the pupil who succeeded in discovering the new and wonderful substance, radium. In 1904 Pierre and Marie Curie received the Nobel Prize in physics and the University of Paris created a special department for the study of radium, appointing Dr Curie as its head with his wife as his chief assistant. Only three years later, Pierre Curie was killed in a street-accident in Paris. But Marie was determined to carry on his work. She

was appointed in his place and in 1911 she won the Nobel Prize again, this time in chemistry.

Not only through her scientific discoveries did Madame Curie become world-famous. She spent the remainder of her life—more than 20 years—in using radium for the healing of disease. (cancer, typhus, diphtheria, etc.)

But radium is a substance as powerful to hurt as it is to heal. The need for great care in using it was not understood in the early days of the discovery, and Madame Curie gradually suffered more and more from the effects of the dangerous radium rays. Her wonderful and unselfish life was brought to an end in a French hospital in 1934.



MME. CURIE

#### EXERCISES

1. What inventions do we owe to Edison?
2. What is radium and what is it used for?

### SECTION 41: THE PETROL-ENGINE: THE AEROPLANE: RADIO: THE FUTURE

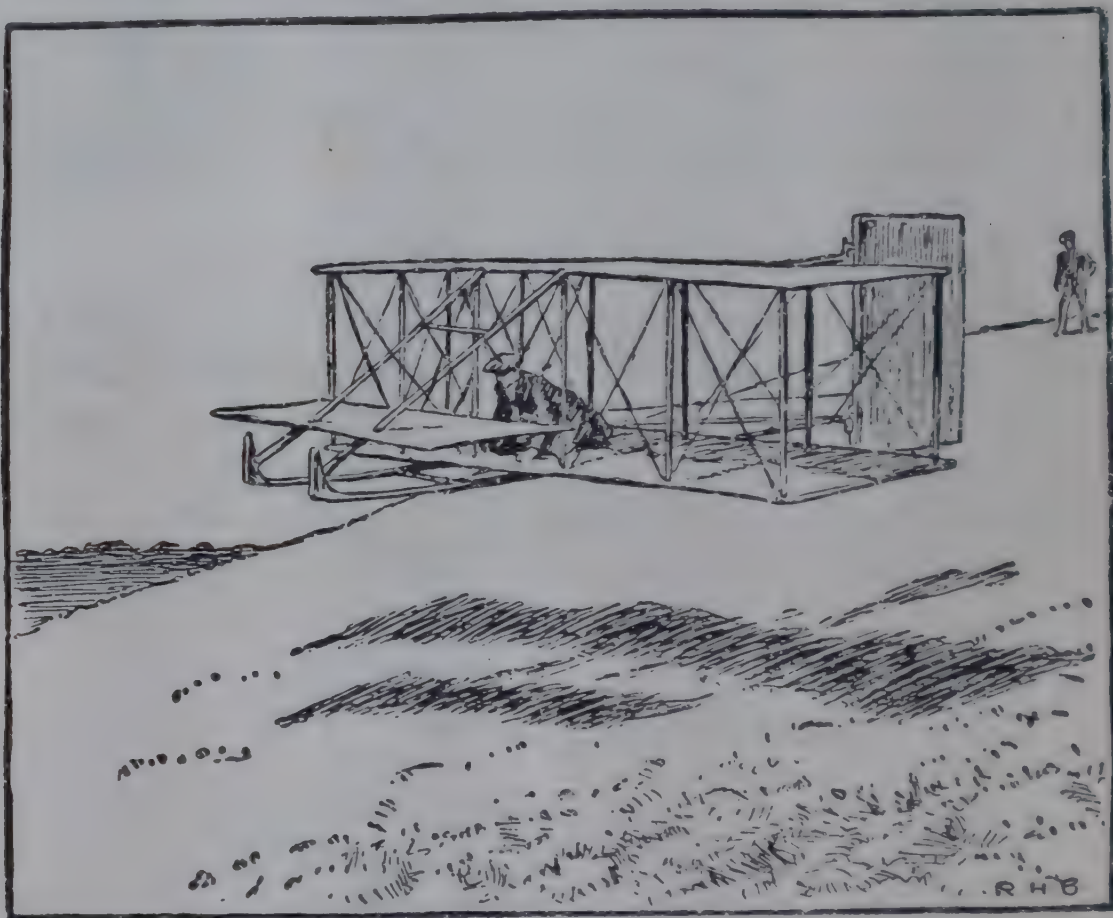
[Key-Question 64: *What inventions made flying possible and for what purposes has the aeroplane been used?*]

§ 64. Perhaps the most important of all modern inventions is the aeroplane. But the aeroplane would have been impossible without the *petrol-driven engine*, the only kind of engine that is light enough to be used in an aeroplane. The 'internal-combustion engine' (i.e. an engine driven by an explosion which takes place inside it) is not the invention of any one man: many have helped to perfect it gradually. The first gas-engine was constructed by an Englishman named STREET, in 1794. But it was DAIMLER, a German, who, in 1886, made the first really efficient petrol-engine; this was used to drive a motor-bicycle and, in the following year, a motor-car. After the year 1890, the use of petrol-engines in motor-cars developed rapidly, particularly in Germany and



France. Only then it became possible to make a machine which could be driven through the air.

Experiments in gliding (i.e. floating through the air in a machine with no engine) had been made by English, French, German and American pioneers, as early as 1850, and the greatest of these was LILIENTHAL, a German. Two American brothers, ORVILLE and



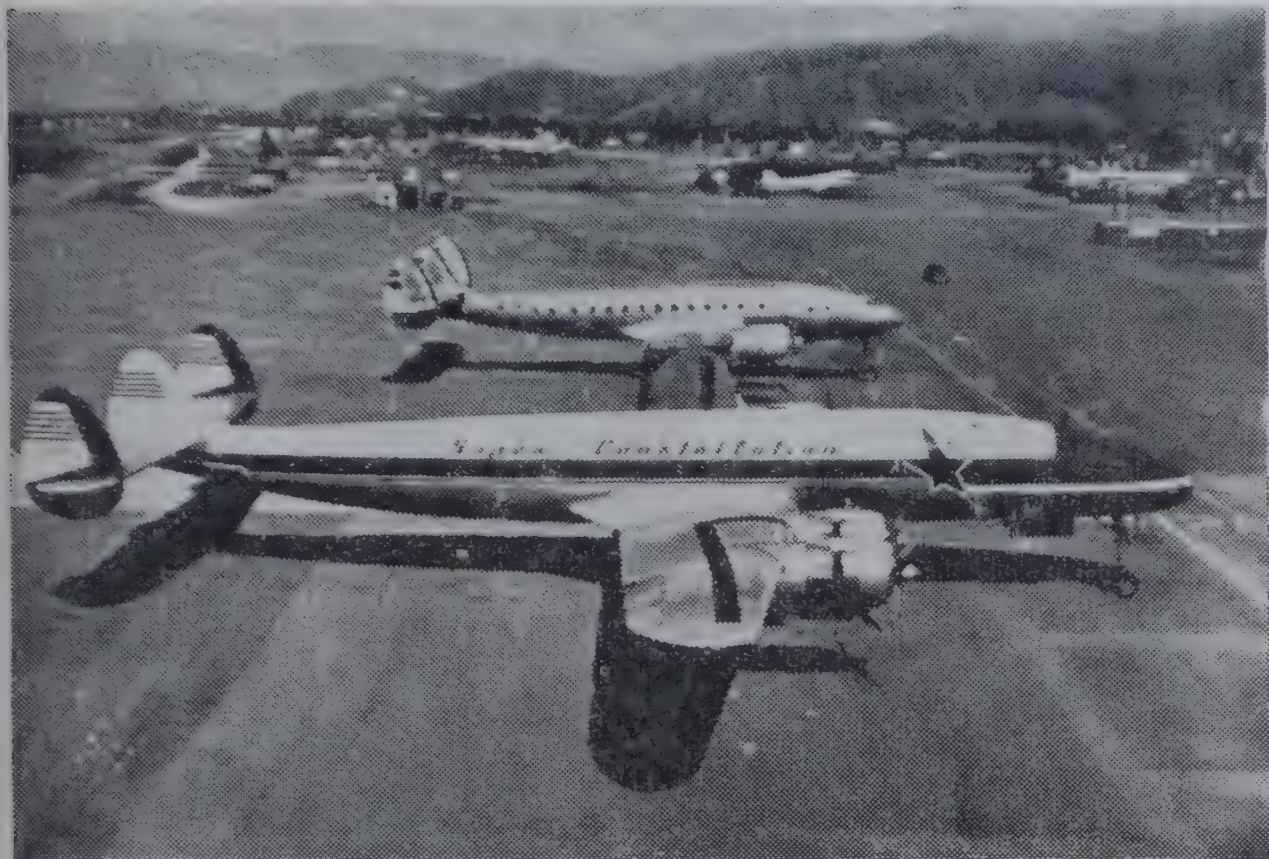
AN EARLY TYPE OF AEROPLANE

WILBUR WRIGHT, made successful glider-flights about 1900. In 1903 they fitted a petrol-motor into a glider-plane and flew for 40 yards at the first attempt, and 270 yards a week later. The aeroplane had been invented!

Its improvement was extremely rapid. In 1904 the Wright brothers flew three miles, and in 1905 twenty-four miles. But it was the First World War (1914-18) which brought the aeroplane into constant use. It was not for dropping bombs that aeroplanes were used then, but for scouting and taking photographs of the enemy's forts, roads and trenches. Much more powerful engines



were made, and with the help of these the planes were able to climb high into the air quickly and to escape being hit by bullets.



MODERN AEROPLANES

After the war men began to do wonderful things in aeroplanes. The first flight across the Atlantic Ocean was made in 1919. It was crossed in  $26\frac{1}{2}$  hours. In the same year two young Australians flew from England to Australia for the first time. In 1926 Admiral Byrd, of the U.S.A., flew over the North Pole; in 1929 he used an aeroplane for exploring the ice-covered lands of the south polar continent and actually flew over the south pole. And in 1933 two planes flew over the top of Mt Everest, the highest point on the earth's surface.

Experiments were also made in building very large planes which could carry twenty or thirty passengers, or an equal weight of luggage and mails. The great air-services were started, carrying mails and passengers from Europe to Australia, via India; from Europe to North and South America; and from America across the Pacific Ocean to Asia. For most of these services sea-planes



were used, i.e. aeroplanes which could come down on water. The building of these great aeroplanes made it possible for flying to



FLYING OVER MOUNT EVEREST

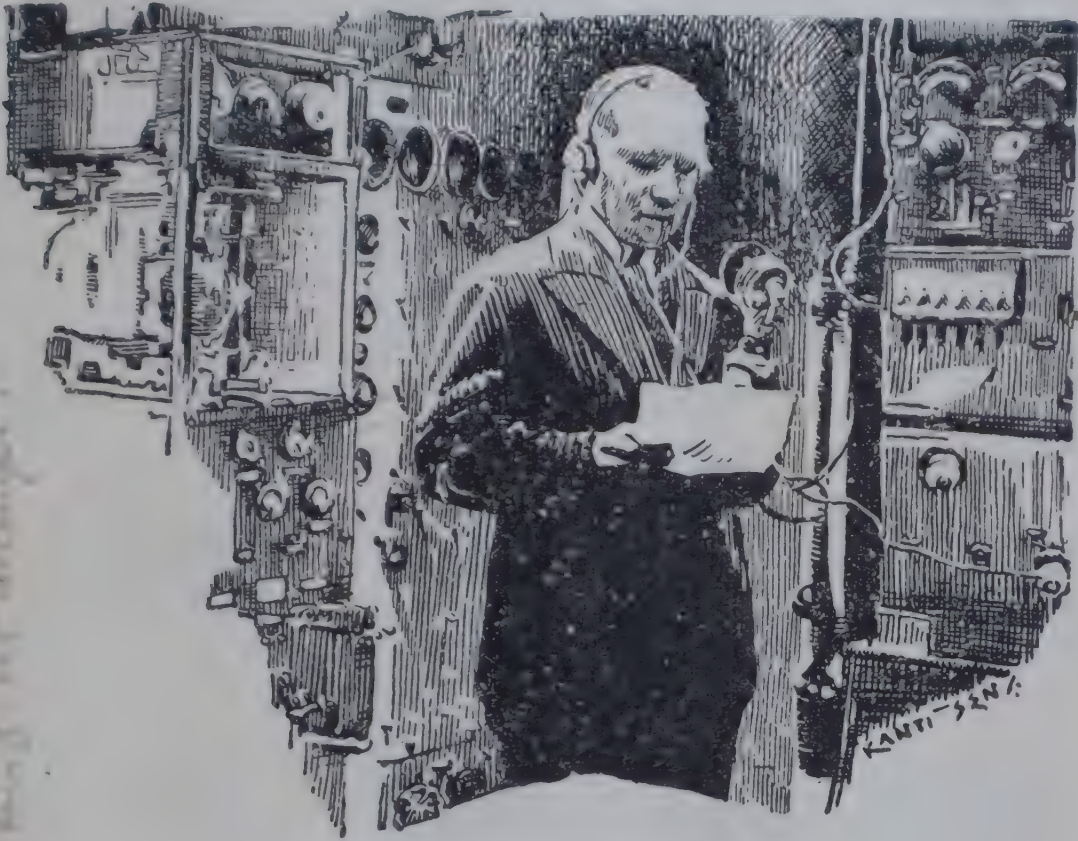
be used for a new and more terrible purpose in the wars of modern times. Instead of carrying a large number of passengers or mail, aeroplanes are used to carry huge bombs to drop on the factories, railways, harbours and cities of the enemy, causing the most fearful destruction.

The invention of the jet-engine (which drives an aeroplane in the same way as a rocket is driven) has made it possible for aeroplanes to travel at amazing speeds—over 600 miles an hour, as fast as sound travels. A jet-driven plane has flown from England to America in less than 5 hours! Men are now planning to go to the moon in rocket-planes.

[Key-Question 65: *What are some of the most recent inventions of our time?*]

§ 65. The latest, and in some ways the most wonderful, of all inventions is radio. By switching on a button and turning a dial

you can hear voices coming from all parts of the world. The first steps towards this invention, like so many others of modern times, were made by many workers in various countries. But more than to anyone else the perfecting of radio was due to MARCONI, an Italian.



MARCONI SPEAKING BY RADIO

Marconi was born in 1874, and when he was only 21 he had invented a wireless transmitting apparatus. The next year he went to England, where he sent and received wireless messages over a distance of ten miles. By 1898, messages were sent from England to France, and in 1901 the first wireless message was transmitted and successfully received between England and the American continent. Soon after this, the great practical value of wireless became clear to the public. A criminal who had escaped by ship from England was captured while at sea through a wireless message having been sent to the ship.

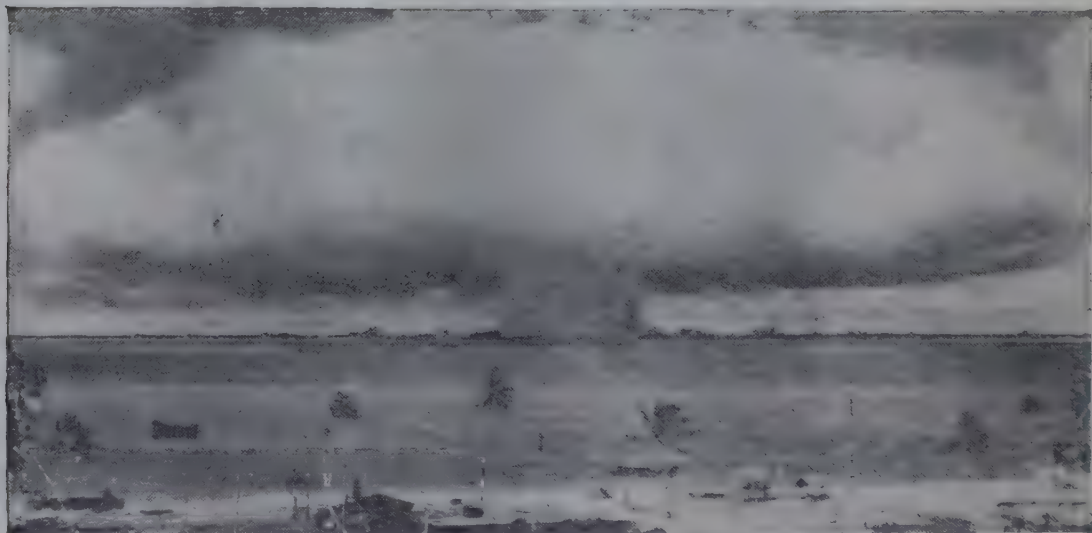
As in the case of flying, it was during the First World War that great use was first made of the new discovery; and just after the



war, in 1919, Marconi set up the first broadcasting station in the world, at Chelmsford, England. He died in 1937.

Fortunately there is no limit to the wonders yet to be discovered in our universe, and more and more clever men are spending their lives in such work. It is impossible to foretell what the next great discoveries and inventions will be. Men have still not found out a way of using the tides as sources of power. Perhaps the heat of the sun, too, may be used by focusing it through powerful lenses.

Wonderful work has been done recently in finding out about the matter of which our universe is made. In 1919, Lord Rutherford at Cambridge succeeded in 'splitting the atom'. It is hoped that by breaking up atoms and freeing the electricity which holds their parts together a new source of power may be found. This is necessary to take the place of the coal and petroleum dug out of the earth, which must come to an end some day.



ATOMIC BOMB EXPLOSION AT BIKINI ATOLL

The discovery of how to use this terrific new power for destruction was actually made recently, and the end of the war against Japan was hastened, if not mainly caused, by the dropping of two 'atomic bombs' on Japanese cities, in August 1945. A great new power of this kind can be used either for evil or for good. It was felt to be so important to control its use that a special meeting of President Truman of the U.S.A., Mr Attlee, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, and Marshal Stalin, head of the U.S.S.R., was held

at the end of 1945, to discuss plans for making sure that the new power will be used only for the benefit of the whole of mankind. Unless this can be done, the wrong use of such a power might quickly destroy the whole of modern civilization.

## EXERCISES

1. Leonardo da Vinci tried to make an aeroplane, but did not succeed. What inventions made after Leonardo's time were necessary in order that a modern aeroplane could be made and used with safety? Make a list of them.

2. Mention some inventions which have not yet been made, which will be of great value to the world. Try to think of some others, besides those mentioned in this book.

3. Read some more works about the people who helped to discover how to fly and write a short account of the history of men's attempts to fly.

## 20

## *The League of Nations, its Work and Failure*

### SECTION 42: PRESIDENT WILSON MUSSOLINI AND FASCISM

[Key-Question 66: *What was the League of Nations?  
What did it do?*]

§ 66. The First World War cost the lives of about seven million men killed in battle, and about fourteen million wounded. This does not include the millions of people all over the world who died of influenza, disease and famine, caused by war.

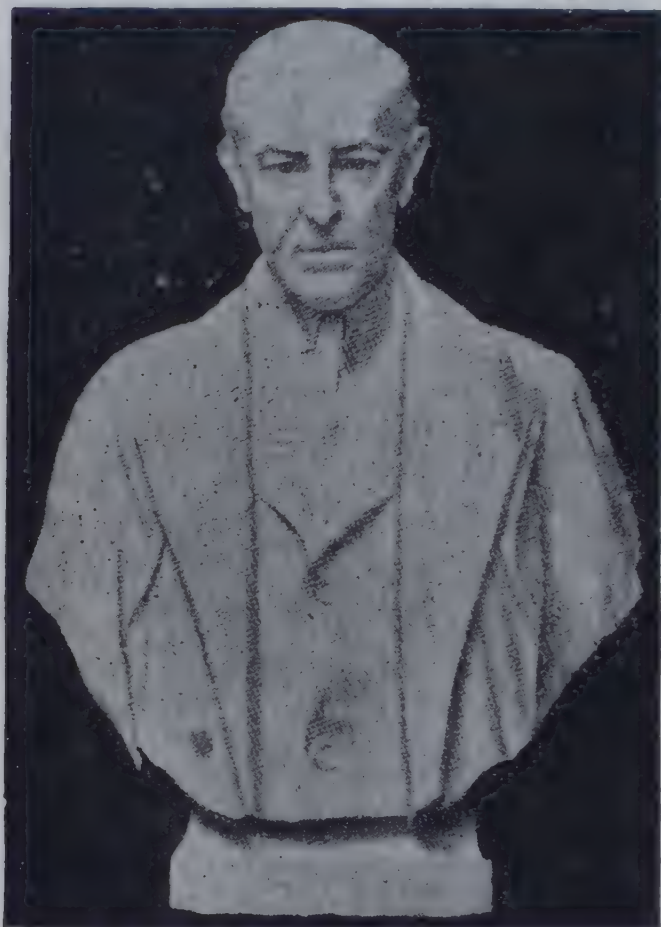
It is not surprising that such fearful destruction of life and health made many people ask whether something could not be done to prevent future wars. The leader in the first attempt to prevent war was WOODROW WILSON, President of the U.S.A. At the end of the war, a conference took place in Paris to decide the terms of peace. President Wilson placed before the conference his scheme for a League of Nations.

It has become the fashion to laugh at the League of Nations as



if it were a useless thing. It was not useless, even though it failed to prevent the Second World War. The League of Nations was a first attempt to do a great thing. It could not be expected to be able immediately to stop war completely. To do that, the causes of war must be removed, and that is not easy.

What good, then, did the League of Nations do? First of all, it was useful in bringing representatives of the various nations



PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON

together, to discuss common problems and difficulties. Through the International Labour Office of the League, and other organizations working under it, many agreements have been made regarding the improvement of conditions of labour, prevention of the spread of diseases from country to country, and so on. Those nations which joined the League of Nations promised that they would not go to war without first consulting together, to see whether their disputes could be settled peacefully.

The weakness of the League was, first, that it had no power to *compel* nations to settle their quarrels peacefully. It was just the same sort of weakness which we noted in the first attempt of the American States to work together peacefully (see Section 26).

Each nation-member of the League wanted to decide its own case, and was unwilling to let it be decided by others. It is as if a prisoner, accused of a crime, were to demand that he should act as his own judge, and refuse to accept the decision of the Court of Justice.

Another weakness of the League of Nations was that all nations

were not included in it. Although it was the President of the U.S.A. who proposed its creation, the Government of the U.S.A. refused to join the League. For several years Russia was not included. (We shall see in the next chapter what had happened in Russia during the First World War.) Germany also was not allowed to join until several years after the end of the war. Nations could also resign from the League if they did not like its decisions, and this is exactly what happened. So the League became like a judge who can decide that the prisoner is guilty of a crime, but who cannot have him punished for it. The prisoner just walked out of the court, laughing! When nations saw that this could be done, they no longer took any notice of the decisions of the League.

The first to do so was Japan. Then came Mussolini. Last, and worst of all, Hitler. We shall see now how this happened.

[Key-Question 67: *How did Mussolini rise to power and what did he do?*]

§ 67. Italy, in the time of Leonardo da Vinci, was—like Germany before Bismarck's time—divided into a large number of small independent States. Only after Napoleon's time did Italy come under the rule of one king. This was mainly due to the work of two great Italians, MAZZINI and GARIBALDI. For about fifty years things went smoothly, and then came the First World War. Italy took part in that war, on the same side as France and the British Empire against Germany and Austria. The German and Austrian armies invaded north Italy, and did a great deal of damage there. Italy is not a rich country, and when the war was over, the people found themselves much poorer than before. They longed to find a leader who would make their country rich and powerful. The man who told them he could do this was BENITO MUSSOLINI. He ruled Italy from 1922 till 1943.

Mussolini improved some things in Italy, as Hitler also did, later, in Germany. He made fine roads and buildings; he drained the marshes, and made more crops grow. But he also educated



the young Italians for war. He reminded them that Italy had been formerly the centre of the Roman Empire and that Romans had ruled 'the world' (that is, all the world which the Romans knew). When his army and his air force were ready, he set out to conquer an empire too. He took no notice of the protests of the League of Nations. He attacked Abyssinia, and conquered it with the help of aeroplanes which dropped poison gas on the Abyssinians. Then he attacked another weak country, Albania, in the Balkan Peninsula. He conquered that too.

Mussolini's ideas, which he called *Fascism*, were similar to Hitler's *Nazism*; and when Hitler began to try to conquer the world for Germany, Mussolini became his friend and helper. The chief idea in Fascism and Nazism is that the State (i.e. the nation) should be all-powerful. That is of greater importance than the happiness of the people. To make the State powerful, freedom may be taken away from the people, if necessary. No one may criticize or oppose the Government and its leaders. Private persons may be allowed to own and to carry on business but they must obey all orders of the State and must make and sell only what the Government allows them to make and sell. You will read in Section 50 how Mussolini first lost the whole of the empire he had conquered in Africa, and how Italy was then invaded and freed from Mussolini's rule. In the end, just before Germany was defeated in 1945, Mussolini was caught in North Italy, and was killed by the Italians themselves.

#### EXERCISES

1. What was the League of Nations and what useful work did it do? In what did it fail, and why?
2. How did Mussolini come into power? What were his ideas and what happened to him?

### SECTION 43: JAPAN

[Key-Question 68: *In what ways did the Japanese change after 1868 and what happened to them?*]

§ 68. The story of the rise of Japan is very different from the

stories of Germany and Italy. The Japanese are a very ancient nation. Till a hundred years ago China and Japan were quite cut off from the western world. They lived their own life in their own way under their own kings. They were wonderfully clever at painting, making pottery, silk-manufacture and embroidery. They did not want to go to war. They wanted to have nothing to do with other peoples. With great difficulty Europeans managed to carry on a little trade with them, in articles such as silk and tea. Then, in 1840, some of the European nations forced the Chinese to open a few of their ports to foreign ships, and to give up some of their land for European trading-stations, such as Hong Kong for the British, Kiao-chau for the Germans, and Port Arthur for the Russians.

Meanwhile, great changes happened inside Japan. Until about 100 years ago Japan had been ruled in the same way as Nepal was ruled till recently, that is by a Prime Minister who always belonged to the same powerful family, the king having no real power. But in 1868 the king (known as the Mikado) was restored to power, and under the Mikado MUTSUHITO Japan suddenly set to work to become a modern nation.

No country has ever been changed so completely in so short a time. Englishmen were employed to build railways and telegraphs; Americans planned the postal services, agricultural system, and higher education. Frenchmen trained the army and planned a new system of laws: Germans organized the medical department. It was even ordered that European dress must be worn by all officials! In twenty-five years Japan changed from being one of the most old-fashioned countries to one of the most modern.

But Japan did not set up a democratic form of government. It had a Parliament, but that Parliament did not rule the country and control the king as in modern democracies. The Mikado was treated as if he were a god. He took no part in ordinary affairs and was hardly ever seen or heard by his people. The people were taught that the Mikado is a divine person, descended from the Sun-god. The ministers issued all orders in the Mikado's

*By visiting the manufacturing of the...  
and chemicals from French Germany*



name and showed extraordinary respect to him. But the real rulers of the country were the leaders of the army and navy.

Since the year 1868 the Japanese learned everything possible from the western nations. They learned shipbuilding from the British, making motor-cars from the Americans, and the manufacture of chemicals and medicines from the French and Germans. They sent their students to every country which could teach them something new. Their cities now have tall buildings like the U.S.A., and even the music they send out on the radio in a strange mixture of eastern and western music.

But the Japanese became like the Germans under Hitler. They were ruled mostly by leaders of the army and navy who educated them in the same ideas of conquest as were taught by Mussolini and Hitler. Japan therefore also became a warlike nation, eager to conquer and to rule the world.

The Japanese began their conquests by taking Korea and the island of Formosa from the Chinese in 1910. Twenty years later they invaded the northern part of China which is called Manchuria. They conquered that. When the League of Nations protested, Japan resigned from the League. In 1935 they began to try to conquer the whole of China. In Section 46 you will learn how the Chinese would not surrender. When the Second World War started, Japan had a good opportunity. The German army was very strong, and it seemed certain that the British would be defeated, even if helped by the U.S.A. Therefore, suddenly, and without declaring war, the Japanese made a great attack on the American navy at Honolulu, the great American naval harbour on Hawaii in the Pacific Ocean. Many American warships were sunk or badly damaged. Then Japanese armies invaded the Philippine Islands, the Dutch East Indies, and the Malay Peninsula. They captured the great British naval harbours at Hong Kong and Singapore. They invaded Burma, and captured Rangoon and Mandalay. It seemed certain that they would soon attack India and Australia. But the American navy had many aircraft-carriers, that is, warships carrying aeroplanes; and American aeroplanes and submarines began to do great damage to Japanese warships

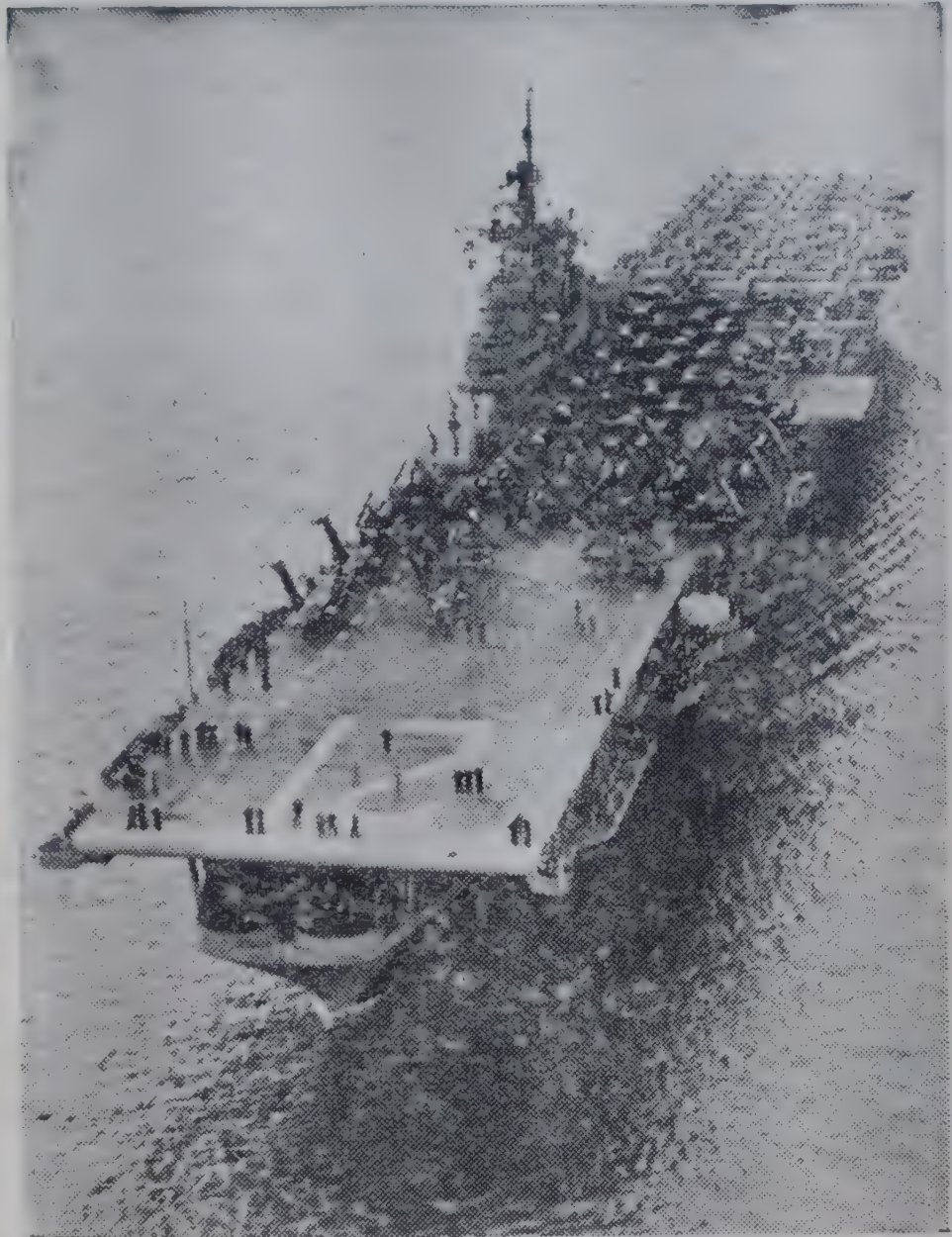


and to ships carrying soldiers and supplies. The Japanese began to find it difficult to keep their armies supplied with food and war-materials in so many distant places. One after another the islands taken by the Japanese were retaken by the Americans and Australians.

In 1944 the Japanese made a big effort to invade Assam. But they were stopped by the British and Indian Armies, the

British, American, and Indian Air Forces, and the Royal Indian Navy. Then the British and Indians began to reconquer Burma, and in April 1945 Mandalay was recaptured, and in the next month Rangoon. Meanwhile, the Americans re-captured the Philippine Islands, and their aeroplanes began to bomb Tokyo and all the other big cities of Japan.

Modern wars are fought mostly with the help of machines, such as guns, tanks, motor-lorries, aeroplanes and warships, and, if the factories making these machines are destroyed, the war-



AN AIRCRAFT-CARRIER



machine cannot go on working. Huge quantities of petrol, too, are necessary for aeroplanes and motor transport. Japan has no petrol-wells and all the petrol had to be brought in ships. So the bombing of Japan's factories and ships soon made it almost impossible for the Japanese to carry on the war. In August 1945 came the dropping of the two 'atomic bombs', mentioned in §65, and the declaration of war by the U.S.S.R. against Japan. The Japanese emperor offered to surrender and the war came to an end. Thus the Japanese did not succeed in their attempt to become the rulers of all the eastern part of the world.

## EXERCISES

1. In what ways is Japan different from all other nations? What can we learn from the story of Japan's rise and failure?
2. Why did the Japanese fail in their attempt to become rulers of the East?

## 21

## The Russian Revolution

## SECTION 44:

## LENIN AND THE IDEAS OF KARL MARX

[Key-Question 69: *What happened in Russia after the First World War?*]

§ 69. At the end of § 61 I told you that Russia took part in the First World War against Germany. But the Russia which was left at the end of that war was very different from the Russia when the war began. A revolution even greater than the French Revolution took place in 1917 in Russia.

After Peter the Great (see Section 23) Russia was ruled by its Tsars until 1917. Some of them were good; some were bad; and some were very bad. Some of them tried to make the condition of their people better: most of them did not care, so long as they had grand palaces to live in. Some of them were eager to make Russia even bigger than it already was: by 1900 the

Russian Empire reached the boundaries of India and China and the Pacific Ocean. It was the greatest continuous land-empire in the world. Western Russia also began to be industrialized, like the other countries of the west. But the profits of the factories all went to those who were already rich, and the mass of the people remained terribly poor. When Russia joined the First World War, to defend Serbia from Austria and Germany, her armies had not even enough weapons though the number of soldiers was very large. The well-equipped German army therefore soon stopped the Russian advance in the east, and in 1917 the Russian army itself began to rebel. The soldiers just said they would not fight, and demanded to be sent home. If their officers refused, they killed them.

But the rebellion soon became a much bigger thing. Most of the Russian soldiers were peasants and farm-labourers who had been forced to join the army. They knew that when they got back to their homes they would be

poorer than ever. They therefore eagerly listened to people who now began to promise to give them land and wealth taken from the rich landowners. The people who made these promises were known as the Bolsheviks.

With the help of the factory-workers and the soldiers and sailors who had rebelled, the Bolsheviks overthrew the Tsar's government, and became the rulers of Russia. The Tsar and all the members of his family were killed.

The leader of the new Russian government was a very remarkable man named LENIN. No man has ever perhaps had such a



LENIN



tremendous responsibility to face. Soviet Russia in 1918 had a population of more than 140 million people. The country was in complete confusion. In many parts no food had been grown because of the war, and it seemed as though famine could not be avoided. The first thing to be done was to send the peasants back to the land to grow food. The war must stop, even if the Germans demanded very hard conditions of peace. So peace was made in March 1918. It was no use asking the peasants to go home unless they went to grow food, and they would certainly not do that for the former owners of the land. So the peasants were told that the land would be theirs if they would cultivate it. They did so; and in many cases the former owners were killed, if they had not already fled.

Then, one by one, the factories were started again. But they were not now under their former owners. They were all owned by the Russian Government.

Lenin's aim was to have everything under Government control and all production and industry in Government possession. This is what is known as Socialism. It is important for us to know something more about this system, for one of the great problems of the future (which you will have to decide) is whether the world's affairs should be run on Socialist lines or in some other way. Lenin was the first man who ever tried to govern a great country on Socialist lines, so his attempt is of the very greatest interest.

Lenin took his ideas from the books of a great German thinker named Karl Marx. Marx was driven out of Germany, because the German Government did not like his ideas; he wrote most of his books in London.

[Key-Question 70: *Why did the Industrial Revolution make the difference between the rich and the poor grow greater?*]

§ 70. Marx lived from 1818 to 1883, just at the time when new factories were being built in all western countries and the Industrial Revolution was at its height. In his famous book, *Capital*,

he showed clearly the changes likely to take place in the life of the people as a result of the factory system and the Industrial Revolution. Some of those changes had already begun to take place, specially the killing out of smaller industries through the starting of great factories (see Section 29, *The Industrial Revolution*).

Suppose you have a small cotton-mill of which you yourself are the manager. You find that you cannot make cloth as cheaply as the big factories, because you do not make it in such large quantities. So you decide to make it into a *company* and have a bigger factory. To get the money to build the factory you have to ask other people to join you and to take 'shares' in the company. They will pay a certain amount of money for each share they buy. With that money you will be able to build a large factory and get better machinery, and so earn more profits. But the people who paid for shares will get part of the profits. Though they have not done any work, it was their money you used, and they expect to get *interest* on it. When the business grows bigger, you will probably find it easier to employ managers and experts, and pay them a salary for their work, instead of trying to do it yourself. This is how, in a big business, it usually happens that the shareholders, the people who *own* the business, do not actually do any work at all. If a man possesses many shares in many different companies, each of which gives him a part of its profits (called 'dividends') it is quite possible for him to live without doing any work at all. In the same way, a big landowner can get money by renting out his land to small farmers, or to people who want to build houses, or to a company that wants to build a factory or a railway. The name which we give to this stored-up wealth, by which people can earn more wealth, is *capital*. Capital means *stored-up wealth in any form*. It may be money which you can use to buy shares on which you will get a dividend; or it may be the factory or the houses which you possess; or land which you have and from which you can earn money either by cultivating it or renting it out to others to use.



## SECTION 45: SOVIET RUSSIA TODAY

[Key-Question 71: *What changes did Marx expect as a result of the Industrial Revolution?*]

§ 71. Karl Marx pointed out in his book that the growth of the factory-system and the competition between the producers of goods was certain to make people get divided more and more into two classes: (i) those who possess *capital* by which they can live without working; and (ii) those whose only possession is their ability to work and earn a living. We may call the former the *capitalist class*, and the latter the *working class*. (Of course, a man who owns a factory or a piece of land, or some shares in a company or some money in the bank, and *also* works for his living, belongs partly to both classes.) This is certainly true, but Marx went much further. He said that this division was bound to get worse and worse, the rich people becoming richer and richer, and the poor people poorer and more unhappy. Finally, Marx said, the poor will see that the only real cure is for the class of Workers to take away the capital from the class of Capitalists. The Capitalists, of course, will not give up their capital without a struggle, so there will be a violent revolution.

After the revolution when the workers have taken all the capital from the rich, what are they to do with it? Are they to share it out among themselves, and all become small capitalists, and begin the same process all over again? No, says Marx: the *Government* of the country must be the owner of all that capital (land, mines, factories, houses, and so on). The Government must pay wages to the workers to carry on all the necessary work, just as it now pays wages and salaries to civil servants, judges, policemen, soldiers and post office employees. And because everyone will have to work for his living (since no one will possess capital on which to live without working), it will be possible for everyone to earn enough to live on, decently. This, in the simplest form, is the system known as Socialism, about which Karl Marx wrote. It is called Socialism because in this system the whole body, or *society*, of people living in a

country possesses the capital, and not separate capitalists. It is also sometimes called *Communism*, which means that capital is owned in *common*, that is, together. The chief difference between Socialists and Communists is that Socialists believe that this system can be brought about slowly, through people voting for socialist members of Parliament; and, when there are enough such members by Parliament setting up a Socialist Government. Communists believe that the change will never come about in that way, but only by a violent revolution, such as occurred in Russia. Communism is also sometimes called Bolshevism because the Russian Communists, led by Lenin, were called Bolsheviks.

You can very easily understand why the kings and Governments of countries where the capitalist system was being carried on hated the ideas of Karl Marx. This was not only because most of the men who were governing countries were themselves big land-owners, or shareholders in companies, or rich capitalists, but it was (and still is) also because many of them really believed that the ideas of Marx were quite wrong. They believed that less suffering would be caused by slowly trying to improve the way of living of the workers, than by destroying the whole capitalist system, and ruining and killing many people in doing so.

[Key-Question 72: *What happened in Russia after the Revolution?*]

§ 72. Naturally, most of the people who wanted a violent change were the poorest people of the working classes; while those who were against Socialism were mostly those in power, or people who were fairly rich. So when Lenin set up a Socialist Government in Russia and refused to give back the Russian factories and mines and other businesses to the rich men who had possessed them the Governments of all the other nations were very angry. The French, British, Americans, Japanese, Czechs and Poles all sent their armies to occupy parts of Russia, hoping that Lenin's Government would thus be overthrown. But it happened otherwise. When the Russians saw that others were trying to



interfere in their nation's affairs, they became more determined to drive out the invaders and all who opposed the Revolution (the 'Whites', as against the 'Reds' who were revolutionaries). By the end of 1920 the invaders withdrew and the 'Whites' were defeated.

For several years Russia had to face terrible difficulties. So much had been lost and destroyed in the war and the revolution, that there was not enough of anything, not even of food. But Lenin was a great leader: he shared every hardship with the people, and little by little things began to get better. He died in 1924, worn out by his tremendous work and from the effects of a bullet which had been fired at him by an assassin.

Since Lenin's death the greatest leader of Soviet Russia has been STALIN. Stalin was one of those who worked with Lenin before the revolution. The greatest work of Stalin has been the complete industrialization of Russia by means of three great Five-Year Plans. Under these plans, since 1928, great electric power-stations have been set up all over Russia; factories have been built, in which at first machinery bought from America, Britain and Germany, was used; later on, Russia began to make her own machinery. Huge farms stretching for miles and miles are now cultivated with the help of motor-tractors and farming machinery made in Russia. Education is free, and is compulsory for every child up to the age of 12. Clever boys and girls, however poor their parents may have been, are helped to go on with higher studies. The health of everyone in the country is carefully looked after.

Soviet Russia has grown into one of the strongest and greatest nations of the world.

#### EXERCISES

1. What did Lenin do for Russia?
2. What are the differences between Capitalism, Socialism and Communism?
3. In what ways is Russia today different from other countries?

# Re-awakening in the East

## SECTION 46:

### DR SUN YAT-SEN: THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

[Key-Question 73: *How was modern China divided under four parties and what caused them to unite again?*]

§ 73. China, which went on unchanged and unchanging for hundreds — almost thousands — of years, has passed through the most terrible experiences during the last 40 years. In 1911 there was a revolution; the Chinese decided to have no more kings; they set up a republic on 1 January 1912. The first president was a great leader named DR SUN YAT-SEN. But the supporters of the revolution were much stronger in the southern half of China, the fertile plains of the Yangtze Kiang, than in the northern plains of the Hwang Ho and the great grasslands of the north and west. In the northern provinces, especially after the revolution, 'war-lords' or small dictators had arisen. Each tried to raise armies to fight the others, while in the mean time the country suffered great harm.



SUN YAT-SEN

From 1912, until his death in 1925, Dr Sun Yat-sen worked hard, building up the republic in the south with its capital at Canton. He formed a party known as the *Kuo-min-tang* or 'The



People's National Party', and did a great deal to help the poorer peasants and factory-workers. The Bolshevik revolution in Russia had taken place in 1917, and in 1924 Dr Sun got help from Russian leaders. They soon began to set up in south China a socialist system of government on the lines of the Russian system. This greatly upset the Chinese landlords, factory-owners, and the rich farmers and merchants. They feared that they would be got rid of as the landlords and merchants of Russia had been. Nevertheless the power of the Kuo-min-tang spread, and by 1927 almost the whole of central and south China was under its rule, and it was getting ready to conquer the north.

But inside the Kuo-min-tang itself there were powerful members who disliked strongly the Communist ideas spread by their Russian helpers. They saw that unless they acted quickly it was quite likely that the whole of China would come under Communist



CHIANG KAI-SHEK

control. They therefore decided to separate from the Kuo-min-tang and to set up another government. Their leader was CHIANG KAI-SHEK, whose wife is a sister-in-law of Dr Sun Yat-sen.

Chiang Kai-shek, with the help of the wealthy people of the Yangtze Kiang cities, set up his Government at Nanking, and called upon all those who disliked Communist ideas to support him. This divided the Kuo-min-tang, and civil war broke out again. From then until 1935 there were four main parties

each struggling against the others. First, there was the south, with its centre at Canton, under the original Kuo-min-tang. Next the north, ruled by various war-lords. Between these, with its capital at Nanking, was Chiang Kai-shek's Government ruling most of the Yangtze valley. And lastly, scattered in various parts of China, but more in the hilly parts, between the Yangtze

valley at the south, were a number of places ruled by Chinese Communists.

Then, in 1935, something happened which made these parties unite, just as the Maratha states united to oppose Aurangzeb, or the American states to fight Great Britain. Japan began to invade north China !

The Japanese had already started this invasion as long ago as 1910 when they took Korea. Again, in 1931, they had taken Manchuria. But in 1935 they began to attack China not far north of Peking. Chiang Kai-shek was busy fighting against the Communists: he believed that China must be united in order to fight the Japanese, and he thought it possible to unite China only if the Communists were first defeated. But in 1936 an extraordinary thing happened. Chiang Kai-shek was kidnapped by the Communists. This was done with the help of one of his own officers who believed that it was the only way to make his commander listen to what the Communists wanted to say. What they wanted was that all Chinese should forget their quarrels and unite to fight the Japanese. They offered to serve under Chiang Kai-shek as Generalissimo (i.e. the highest general) if he would lead them, not against their own countrymen, but against the Japanese. Chiang agreed. He was sent back with honour to his own capital in an aeroplane, and united China began to fight against the Japanese at last.

But unity had come too late to save a large part of China. The Chinese were poor, and very poorly armed. The Japanese had already landed huge armies of well-equipped soldiers and hundreds of aeroplanes. One after another the Chinese cities were taken by the Japanese; Peking, Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, then Canton itself. But the Chinese would not give in. Chiang Kai-shek went on moving his capital further and further west; from Nanking to Hankow; from Hankow to Chungking. Not only did he move the seat of Government; he moved whole factories, so that the Chinese might still go on manufacturing arms and equipment. He even moved universities, so that education need not be stopped by the war. And in the conquered parts



of China, especially those which had been under Communist rule, the Chinese people, even the poorest villagers, carried on a secret war against the Japanese. This made it almost impossible for the Japanese to govern any part of the conquered lands, except the towns through which the railways ran, and the sea-coasts and river-ports which the Japanese navy could control. Never in all history has there been such a brave fight by a peace-loving people, so poor, and so badly armed that they could not even protect themselves against their warlike and well-armed enemies. That struggle went on for more than ten years. In the end the Japanese had to surrender to the United Nations. What then happened in China we shall learn in § 84.

#### EXERCISES

1. Read more about Dr Sun Yat-sen and give a short account of his life and work.
2. How were the poorly-armed Chinese able to resist the Japanese for so long?

### SECTION 47:

#### MODERN TURKEY AND MODERN INDIA

[Key-Question 74: *What did Mustapha Kemal Ataturk do for Turkey?*]

§ 74. A very remarkable man, who was successful in changing within a few years an old-fashioned country, Turkey, into a modern nation, was MUSTAPHA KEMAL ATATURK ('the great Turk'). Turkey took part in the First World War on the side of Germany. When the war was over Mustapha Kemal formed a Turkish Nationalist party and in 1923 the Sultan was sent away and Turkey became a republic, with Mustapha Kemal as its first President. In 1924 Kemal abolished the Caliphate, and in 1925 the use of the fez was forbidden. Women were freed from 'purdah', and education was made compulsory for all. It was ordered that, instead of the Arabic script, the Roman script should

be used. This made it easy for the Turkish language to be learned by all, and also to be read by people of other nations which use the Roman script. In 1927 Mustapha Kemal was again elected President. He changed Turkey completely during his rule. His aim has been to make Turkey into a strong and united modern nation inside her own boundaries (that is mostly inside Asia Minor) and not to waste her strength in trying to conquer other people or in making a Turkish Empire. Mustapha Kemal died in 1938 but Turkey is still developing on the lines planned by him.



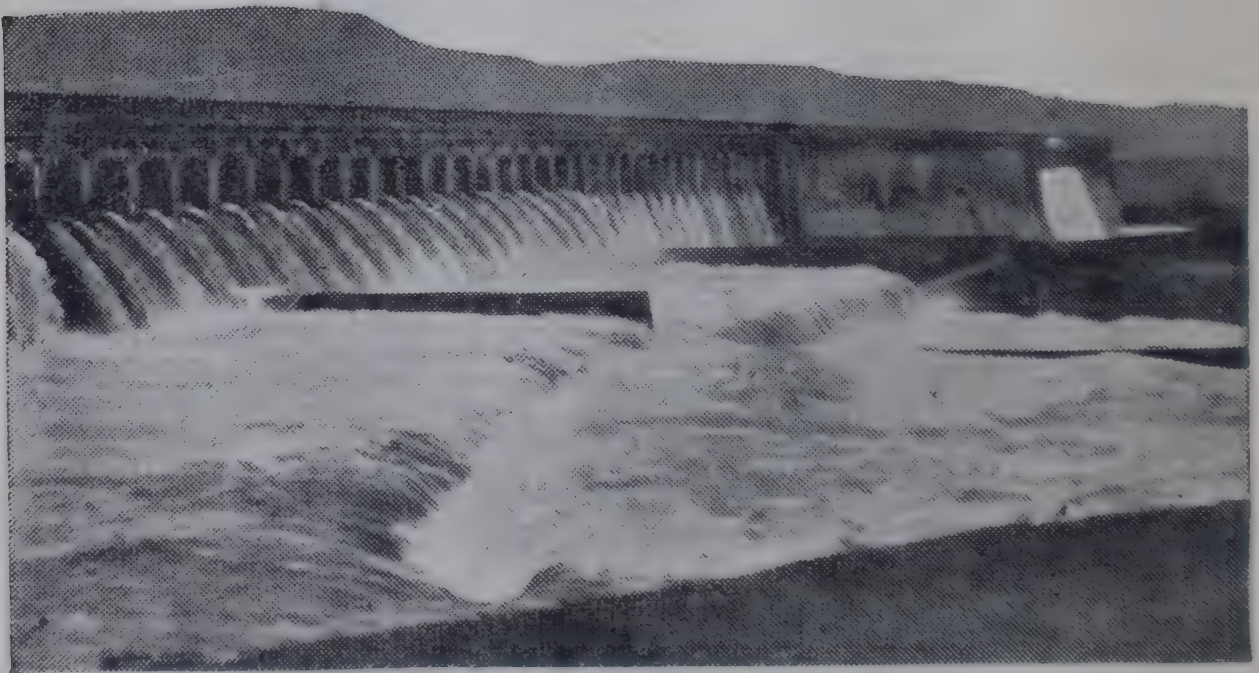
MUSTAPHA KEMAL ATATURK

[Key-Question 75: *What did the British do for India? What more must be done?*]

§ 75. The other ancient civilization of the east, the civilization of India, proved its worth in quite a different way. India showed in the seventeenth century that some of her people, the Marathas, were able to unite under the leadership of Shivaji against the Mogul rule. But they did not unite later against the British. The Indian princes often found themselves fighting on the side of the British against each other, or asking the British for help to protect themselves from other Indian princes. In this way, with the help of Indians, the British were able, little by little, to bring the whole of the great country of India under their control.



Under British rule there is no doubt that India made progress in certain ways. Most important of them was that the whole of the Indian peninsula from the Himalayas to Cape Comorin was united under the control of a single power. Although one-third of the country consisted of the Indian States, their rulers accepted the British Government as supreme. After more than a thousand years all fear of warfare inside the country was taken away, and there was no danger of an army from one province or state attacking a neighbouring province or state. People could travel in perfect safety from one end of India to the other, and could get to know and understand people of other provinces much more easily, because railways and roads were built in all directions. People could follow whatever religion they liked, without any fear that those of a different religion would try to force them to change. By learning the English language large numbers of educated Indians came into contact with western ideas, and many went to Europe and America to study modern science, agriculture, medicine and engineering, which they brought back to India and



SUKKUR DAM ACROSS THE RIVER INDUS

helped to spread. Little by little during the two centuries of British rule India became modernized; great plans for irrigation were



carried out; huge dams were built across the biggest rivers (such as the Sukkur dam shown in the picture); canals were cut for miles across even desert country; tanks and wells were made; waterfalls were controlled to make electricity. India now has the greatest irrigation-system of all the countries of the world, and is covered by a network of telegraph-wires, roads and railways.

But thoughtful people in India soon began to feel that this sort of progress alone was not enough. It was mostly in the cities and towns that people had good houses to live in, good clothes, and enough to eat. Even in the towns, there were thousands of people crowded together in tiny dirty rooms, poorly clothed and without enough food; in the villages there were millions of people so poor that they had hardly one meal a day. The number of schools was enough to educate only about one fifth of the children, and there were not nearly enough doctors and hospitals to take care of sick people. What was the use of being able to travel in safety in a railway train or motor-car right across India, if most of the people were too poor to be able to do it? How could things be improved and India made into a great nation of happy healthy people, living at peace?

All India's leaders were agreed that one thing, first of all, must be done. India must be ruled by Indians. There is a saying: 'Good government is no substitute for self-government,' and even if British rule had got rid of poverty and sickness in India, it would not have been good for Indians to depend only upon others for prosperity and progress. We cannot become strong unless we learn to be self-reliant and to govern ourselves. Some Indians believed that the only way to get freedom was to start a rebellion and fight for independence as the American colonists did (see Section 26). But there are two strong reasons for not trying to get freedom in that way.

The first is that in these days of aeroplanes and tanks, poison gas and bombs, a very small number of soldiers armed with such weapons can easily stop thousands who are not well armed. The second reason is perhaps a stronger one. It is that if you try to do



a good thing in a bad way (that is, using a method which causes harm to many people), you do not get the good result for which you hoped. The result becomes to some extent bad. This was the opinion of the man known all over the world as India's greatest leader of modern times,—MOHANDAS KARAMCHAND GANDHI, whom everyone knew as 'Mahatma Gandhi'. Whether you agree with his opinions or not, you must know as much as possible about him, to be a really educated person.

### MAHATMA GANDHI AND HIS IDEAS

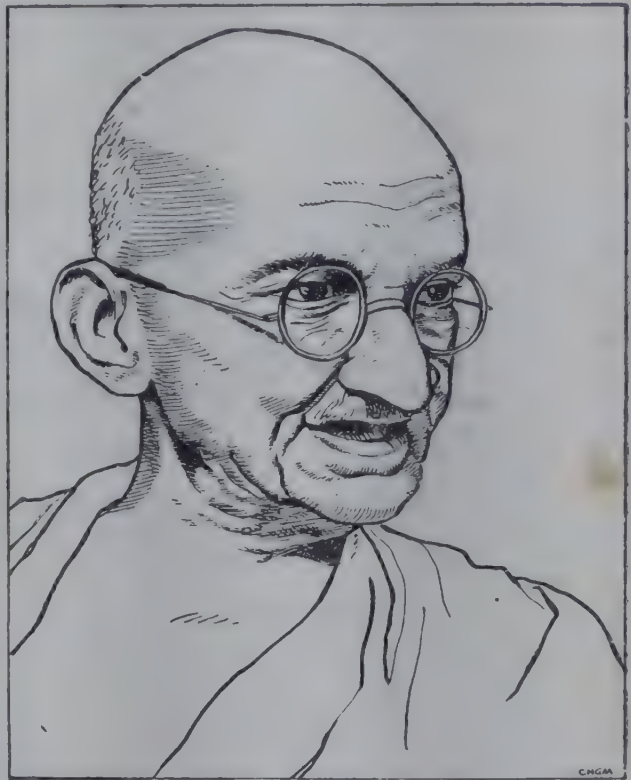
[Key-Question 76: *What is satyagraha and how did Gandhiji use it?*]

§ 76. Gandhiji was born in 1869, at Porbandar in Kathiawar. His father was Prime Minister of the state of Rajkot. It was decided that Mohandas should become a lawyer, and when he was 19 years old he sailed for England to study law. In London he met Mrs Besant, the Theosophist leader, who was deeply interested in India. She advised him to make a close study of the teachings of his own religion, Hinduism, as well as of other religions. He found that the ideas of Count Tolstoy, a Russian who believed in Christ's teaching of returning good for evil, agreed closely with his own ideas.

In 1891 he returned to India where he set up as a barrister. In 1893 the opportunity came to him which proved the turning-point in his life. A big Indian business firm, Messrs Dada Abdulla and Co., traders in Natal, South Africa, had brought a lawsuit against another firm, and they invited Gandhiji to go out to South Africa to take up the case for them. He accepted. He had hardly been in that country a few days when he had experience of the bad behaviour of the South African Dutch and British people towards those who were not Europeans. He found that the little colony of his fellow-countrymen, who had come from India to earn their living in South Africa, had no rights as citizens in that country, though they were British subjects. All

sorts of bad things were done to them, to make it hard for them to stay in South Africa. Gandhiji felt very sorry for them. After the lawsuit was finished they asked him to remain in South Africa as their leader in a struggle to obtain justice. He consented, and in May 1894 he founded the Natal Indian Congress.

To start an armed rebellion against a powerful Government like that of the British in South Africa was impossible. Besides, this was not the kind of rebellion that Gandhiji believed in. He was determined to try an experiment of a different kind, on the lines practised long ago by followers of the Buddha in India, and by followers of Christ in Europe and America, such as William Penn (see Section 24). Everyone knows now how Gandhiji fought the South African Government by means of *satyagraha* or 'non-violent' resistance. After a struggle lasting 20 years, in which Gandhiji and his followers often had to suffer imprisonment, victory was won in the passing of the Indian Relief Act of 1914.



MAHATMA GANDHI

Gandhiji then returned to India, and for more than 30 years he worked in the same way for Indians in his own country.

By following Gandhiji's ideas, India at last won her freedom, peacefully, from the British, in 1947 (see § 85). But alas! Gandhiji did not live much longer to help India and the world to work out his noble ideas. On 30 January 1948, he was killed by an assassin in Delhi. Not only the people of India but peace-loving people all over the world mourned the loss of one of the



sincerest and greatest men who ever lived, and who nevertheless lived as the simplest and poorest.

Gandhiji believed that you can never get a right thing in a wrong way. If you try to do so, you find that the thing you get is something *different*; it is not the right thing. The only sort of force which Gandhiji believed in using is what he called 'soul-force'. This is the power which comes to you from doing everything *without hatred*, and without caring whether it brings you difficulty or even suffering. You must be ready to suffer, but you must not give suffering to others in order to get something for yourself. Gandhiji believed that, in the end, people who work for what they think is good, using only such methods, and not letting themselves 'return evil for evil', will get the results they have struggled for. He believed that 'those who take up the sword shall perish by the sword'. This was the teaching of Buddha and Christ. *If it is true, we shall never get peace by making war.*

This is a most important question which you must think about, and make up your mind what *you* think to be the right answer. Then you must act truly according to your decision, now and when you grow up. Only by having thousands of men and women who think clearly, and who act with determination can India be a leading nation of the world, and remain one.

#### EXERCISES

1. Have a debate on the following subject: 'It would have been better for the Chinese to have adopted against the Japanese Mahatma Gandhi's method of resistance.'
2. Why were the Marathas more successful in resisting Aurangzeb than in resisting the British?
3. Have a debate on the following subject: 'Instead of preparing a strong army, navy and air force to protect India from invasion, it would be better for India to train her sons and daughters in *satyagraha*.'

# The Second World War

## SECTION 48:

### ADOLF HITLER AND HIS RISE TO POWER

[Key-Question 77: *Why did the German Republic fail?*]

§ 77. In Section 39 you learned how the First World War ended in the defeat of Germany and her allies—Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. And in § 66 you learned about the making of the League of Nations, the first attempt of the people of all the world to put a stop to war. You also learned how the League could not stop the Japanese from invading China nor Mussolini from attacking Abyssinia and Albania. A few years later an even more dangerous enemy of peace came on the scene. That was ADOLF HITLER.



HITLER

The German people got rid of their war-like emperor and had set up a republic at the end of the First World War. But the Germans had always been used to obeying the rules made by a king,

rather than making their own rules. The new German republic was not a success.

Germany's cities and factories had not been damaged, for there was very little bombing from the air in the First World War.

*one*  
*the German Republic after the world war too*  
*his German Republic*



But Germany had no money left for buying raw materials to manufacture into goods, and she had no ships. They had all been sunk or captured by the Allies. The German colonies had all been taken by the Allies and they also took some of the German coal-mines because the Germans had destroyed those of Belgium and France. The result of this was that when the German soldiers came back from the war there was no work for many of them. The Government of the German republic was helped for some time by means of loans from America; but in 1930 the U.S.A. itself began to suffer from enormous unemployment and financial difficulty. Things became worse and worse in Germany, until by the year 1932 there were more than 6 million people without any work and without any way of earning a living.

When things become as bad as this, people are willing to try any kind of medicine in the hope of getting better. This was how Hitler got his opportunity.

Adolf Hitler was born in 1889 at Braunau, a small Austrian town where the boundaries of Austria and Germany meet. His father was an Austrian Customs officer. Adolf did not get on well at school. He wanted to be an artist; but both his father and his mother died before he was 18 and he had to earn a living somehow. He went to Vienna and became a builder's labourer. After some time he managed to make a living by house-painting and decoration. When he was 23 he went to live in Munich. Two years later the First World War began and Hitler became a German soldier.

As a soldier he was brave, and won the Iron Cross. He was wounded and had to go to hospital, and while he was there the war came to an end. Hitler was still only a corporal. He had no home to go to, and no work to do. He remained in the German army.

According to the terms of peace, Germany had been allowed by the Allies to keep an army of 100,000 men. Most of the officers of this army did not wish Germany to be a democratic republic. They remembered how powerful it had become under the iron rule of Frederick the Great, of Bismarck, and of Emperor

William II. So they began to plan to overthrow the German republican government. They found in Adolf Hitler just the man who could help them.

[Key-Question 78: *How did Hitler get power and how did he use it?*]

§ 78. Hitler had found out that he possessed a great gift. He was an extraordinary orator. When he began to speak about the things he liked and the things he hated, words seemed to come to him without any effort; he grew more and more excited; he shouted and waved his hands; perhaps he himself hardly knew what words he spoke. But his excitement was somehow carried to the people listening to him. They began to feel as Hitler felt; they felt that what he said was true; they cheered; they wept; they went away determined to do as Hitler told them. This gift of oratory was of the greatest use to Hitler and to the men who made use of him.

The condition of Germany was becoming more and more terrible. People were quite ready to listen to any plan to make things better, for they felt it could not possibly make things worse. Hitler and his friends started a new party which they named the 'National Socialist Party', from which we get the word *Nazi*. Hitler himself designed its black swastika flag.

As things got worse and worse, more and more people decided to support Hitler's new party, and in 1932 it was the largest political party in Germany. In 1933 Hitler became Chancellor (Prime Minister).

He got into power through the people's votes, but he soon showed his determination to keep in power whether people voted for him or not. In less than a month after he had become Chancellor he sent out an order under which anyone who did not agree with him and his Nazis could be sent to a prison camp without trial. A little later it was ordered that there should be no other party in Germany except the Nazi party. All newspapers, all films, all broadcasting, all education were placed under



Nazi control. Any one who said a word against the Nazis was quickly taken away—and heard of no more.

But how did Hitler solve the problem of Germany's unemployment? He did it in the Nazi way.

First, he told the people of Germany that many of their difficulties would be solved if they got rid of the Jews.<sup>1</sup> He spread the idea that Jews owned most of the big businesses and that they gave all the best jobs to their own people. He made the Germans believe that the Jews were to blame for Germany's defeat in the war and for the unemployment afterwards. He stirred up such a hatred of the Jews that many of them were killed, and the Nazi Government sent most of the others to prison camps. A few managed to escape to France, England and America. Among them was the great mathematician, Einstein. Germany lost many of her greatest scientists, doctors, musicians, and inventors in this way. But the non-Jewish Germans got possession of their money and their jobs.

Next, Hitler told the Germans that they had never really been defeated in the war, and that they must get ready another great army and air force to take back all the parts of Germany which had been lost. They believed this too; or, even if they did not believe that it was true, they did as Hitler told them because they were afraid to oppose the Nazis.

So Hitler was soon able to give work to all the unemployed of Germany, by sending the young men into the new army, and by setting the factories to work again making new weapons and machines for war.

#### EXERCISES

1. What were Hitler's aims? How did he try to accomplish them?
2. Hitler got into power by the people's votes. Did he rule democratically?

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<sup>1</sup> The ancestors of the Jews lived in Palestine, but the Jews have spread all over the world. They are very clever at business and many are bankers and money-lenders. Many are scientists and artists, too.

## SECTION 49:

## THE SECOND WORLD WAR

[Key-Question 79: *What was Hitler's plan and why did it fail?*]

§ 79. Why did not the other nations stop Hitler from preparing for another war? Partly, no doubt, because they were themselves so tired of war that they did not want to fight, and they did not believe Hitler would really go to war again. Also, they all had their own difficult problems to face, for every nation was poorer after the war, and in all countries there were huge numbers of unemployed.



EUROPE IN 1939

Hitler saw, too, that the League of Nations could not stop a nation that was determined to do as it pleased. Japan did as it pleased in 1931. Mussolini did the same in 1935. So Hitler



got ready, and in 1936 he began. He marched his armies into the Rhineland region where, according to the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was not allowed to keep any soldiers.

Next he began to add more land to Germany by claiming, one by one, all those parts of Europe where people of German birth had gone to live in large numbers.

The first was Austria. In 1938 the German army marched into Vienna. Hitler claimed those parts of Czechoslovakia nearest to Germany, where many Germans lived. He took them by force in 1939.

Hitler had promised, over and over again, in agreements which he signed with other nations, that he would not do these things, and after taking the Czechoslovakian lands, he promised again. He said that he did not wish to have any more land in Europe for Germany. But by this time other nations had begun to understand that he made these promises only in order to deceive them, and to get time to prepare his armies and aeroplanes for the next attack.

It came a few months later, in September 1939. *Hitler invaded Poland.* He expected that the other nations would still be afraid to try to stop him.

But Hitler was mistaken this time. The British and French were not ready to fight, but they saw clearly that if they did not try to stop Hitler now, they might not be able to stop him at all. They told Hitler that, unless he took his armies out of Poland, they would declare war on Germany. He refused, and the Second World War began on 3 September 1939.

Hitler tried to deceive the Russians, too, as he had deceived the nations of western Europe. In August 1939 he signed an agreement with Soviet Russia promising that he would not attack Russia, if Russia did not attack Germany. Stalin was too clever a man to trust Hitler, however, and when Hitler's armies invaded Poland, Stalin sent the Russian armies into Poland too, so that the Germans might not be able to take the eastern part of Poland which is nearest to Russia. All the remaining part of Poland the Germans quickly seized.

[Key-Question 80: *What happened in the battle of Belgium and France and in the battle of Britain?*]

§ 80. Now, for several months, all the nations waited to see what Hitler would do next. The French had expected him to try to invade France, so they had made a very strong line of forts along the boundary between France and Germany. The armies of Belgium and of Great Britain were not ready too. But in April 1940 the Germans attacked Denmark and Norway, and in May they entered Holland and Belgium. The new German armies were supported by huge numbers of aeroplanes, tanks, and guns, and it was impossible for soldiers, however brave, but armed mostly with rifles only, to stop the German advance. The Belgian army surrendered. The British were forced back to the Channel coast at Dunkirk. With the help of the British navy most of the soldiers were taken safely across to England, but all their guns and motor-transport were lost. The French armies were smashed, one after another. Mussolini then joined Hitler, declaring war on France and Great Britain. Hitler made a victory-march into Paris in June, and France asked for peace.

It seemed as if the war was almost at an end. Britain had not been conquered, but the British had hardly any well-armed men, and her new aeroplanes were only just beginning to arrive from the factories. If Hitler had invaded England then, he might have won. But Hitler had not expected an attack on England to be necessary so soon. His invasion-craft<sup>1</sup> were not ready, so he decided to try to finish off the British in another way. In August the Battle of Britain began. It was an attack by German aeroplanes, which dropped bombs on England for nearly two months continuously. Hitler hoped that this would force the British to ask for peace.

But the new British aeroplanes began to come from the factories just in time. The famous 'Hurricane' and 'Spitfire' fighters were much faster than the German bomber-planes, and, though the Germans were much greater in number, they were completely

<sup>1</sup> These are special flat-bottomed boats which can land soldiers and war-equipment on the enemy's shore for an invasion.

*leader of France was De Gaulle*

*church*



defeated. On a single day no less than 185 German planes were destroyed, and all together more than 2,000 German planes were lost, while the British lost only one-sixth of that number.

*This was the first turning-point of the war, for, if Hitler had been able to invade Britain or to destroy British cities and factories by bombing, the war would almost certainly have ended with victory for Germany. Neither Russia nor America had joined the war at that time, and Hitler would have been able to attack them separately with the whole of western Europe and its factories under his control.*

#### EXERCISES

1. Why did Hitler invade Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland?
2. What happened in the Battle of Britain?

#### SECTION 50: THE UNITED NATIONS

[Key-Question 81: *What was Hitler's new plan when he failed to crush the British?*]

§ 81. The British now did a bold thing. At the end of 1940, leaving just enough aeroplanes and armed men in England to prevent an invasion, they sent out all the remainder to Africa, where Mussolini was now getting ready to strike at Egypt. Instead of waiting for Mussolini's attack, the British general (Sir Archibald Wavell, later Viceroy of India) struck first at the Italians. The Italian navy was attacked and many ships were sunk. Then, with only 30,000 British Empire and Indian troops, Wavell defeated the whole Italian army in north Africa, and took more than 130,000 prisoners. In 1941 Wavell invaded the Italian colonies of Eritrea and Somaliland, and then Abyssinia. In May 1941 these countries were entirely freed. (See map on p. 214).

But, in the meantime, Hitler had been preparing for another blow in Europe. He forced all the eastern European countries, except Turkey, to join the 'Axis'. The 'Axis' was the name given to the alliance of nations with Germany, most of them being in central Europe, except Japan. His armies invaded eastern Europe in March 1941 and occupied Greece. All this, however,

was a preparation for a much bigger blow in the east. For, on 22 June 1941 *Hitler invaded Russia*.

We have already seen that he had promised not to do this, and, up to the last moment before the invasion, he went on telling the Russians that he was their best friend. But, having failed to crush the British, his plan now was to conquer Russia. Then, with the help of Russian industries, food-supplies, and men, he would have attacked Britain again, later, and thus become master of all Europe.

His attack was so sudden that it succeeded at first. The German armies quickly occupied all the eastern part of Russia, and surrounded Leningrad. They came within 30 miles of Moscow; they captured the coal and iron region of the rivers Donetz and Don, and all the fertile southern plains of the Ukraine, the greatest food-supplying region of Russia. (See map on p. 209).

It seemed again as if Hitler would surely win the war. With most of Russia and all the remainder of continental Europe under his control, his supplies of everything needed for war were enormous. Only the U.S.A. was left to help the British and Russians in the fight. The U.S.A. was in fact sending much help, though it had not actually joined the fighting.

The war now suddenly became really a world-wide war. For, probably because it seemed as if the Axis were sure to win, the eastern partner of the Axis, Japan, now joined in the fight. Like Hitler with his false promises to Russia, the Japanese went on trying to deceive the U.S.A. until the last moment. Then, all of a sudden, without any declaration of war, on 7 December 1941, the Japanese made a tremendous attack by air upon the American navy in Pearl Harbour, the great naval port in the island of Hawaii (see Section 43).

[Key-Question 82: *How did the war in Europe end?*]

§ 82. In 1942 the whole force of the Axis powers tried hard to finish off the war, but failed. It was a hard year for the United Nations, the name by which all the nations fighting against the Axis then became known. The United Nations included the



British Empire, the U.S.S.R., the U.S.A., Free China, Free France and Brazil, with armies from most of the European countries occupied by Germany: namely, Poland, Norway, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Greece, and a Jewish Brigade.

First, at sea, the Germans sent out their submarines to sink British and American ships faster than new ones could be built. Many were sunk, but at last the submarines began to be destroyed faster than they could be replaced.

Next, in north Africa, the Germans regained all that their



NORTH AFRICA

Italian allies had lost, and they were only just stopped at El Alamein, west of Alexandria, the great port and naval base of Egypt.

Then the Germans made another advance further into Russia. This time they captured a great part of the northern Caucasus, with some of the precious oil-wells there. They reached the river Volga at Stalingrad. *This was the second great turning-point of the war.*

If Stalingrad had been taken, most of the Russian oil-fields would have been captured soon after, and it would have been very difficult for Russia to recover from that loss. If Alexandria had been taken, Egypt and the Suez Canal would soon afterwards have been in German hands too. The way to India and the Far East would then have been open, and the Germans would have been able to join forces with Japan. If the submarines had been able to stop American supplies coming across the Atlantic, both Britain and Russia would have been unable to hold on.

But none of these things happened. And at the end of 1942 the tide began to turn.

In the winter of 1942 the United Nations again drove the Axis out of North Africa, this time finally and completely. Tripoli and Tunisia were captured in the spring of 1943, and in July the invasion of Sicily began. At the same time the Russians were having their greatest success. The whole of the Caucasus region was set free; Stalingrad (which had been partly taken) was not only retaken, but German armies numbering more than 300,000 men were destroyed or taken prisoner there. Then the Russians began a great advance into the parts of their country held by the Germans, getting back nearly all they had lost in the previous year.

In September 1943, the United Nations invaded Italy, and in the following month Italy surrendered. Mussolini escaped to join his German friends in north Italy, where he held out for a year and a half more.

In the early part of 1944 the Russians drove the Germans right out of Russia, and began to invade Rumania and Hungary. The other United Nations made a great landing on the coast of France in June, and in August Paris was retaken. The next month Germany's western boundary was crossed, and in November the river Rhine was reached.



Meanwhile, throughout the year 1943, British and American bombing planes had been making continuous day and night attacks on German factories, submarine harbours, and communications. It became impossible for the Germans to move their supplies; it became impossible even for them to go on manufacturing. But they made a last attempt to damage England by sending over 'flying bombs' and 'rocket aeroplanes', loaded with huge quantities of explosive, guided by radio instead of a human pilot. These did much harm but were too late to save the Germans from defeat.

At the beginning of 1945 the Russians retook Warsaw, and began to invade Germany from the east. Budapest, the capital of Hungary, was taken in February, and in March the western allies crossed the Rhine. In April the great manufacturing region of the Ruhr was surrounded, and 100,000 prisoners were taken. On 13 April the Russians took Vienna, and on 24 April they surrounded Berlin. On 29 April Mussolini was captured by Italian patriots and immediately shot. On 1 May it was said that Hitler was dead. Germany surrendered unconditionally to the United Nations on 7 May 1945.

#### EXERCISES

1. What were the 'turning-points' of the Second World War?
2. In what ways was the Second World War like the First and in what ways was it different?

## 24

### *Problems of the World Today*

#### SECTION 51: WORLD INTERDEPENDENCE: A WORLD SURVEY

[Key-Question 83: *In what way are leaders of democracies different from dictators?*]

§ 83. In the previous chapter the name of Adolf Hitler was mentioned a great deal. So also was the name of Mussolini. Very little mention was made of the leaders on the side of the United Nations. There is a reason for this.

Mussolini and Hitler were men who made themselves leaders

of their nations, and kept their position of leadership, by *force*. It is true that both of them first gained the votes of the people in order to get their parties into power. But having got that power, they held on to it by putting an end to any possible rival party. To do this they even had their possible rivals murdered. Among these, in the case of Hitler, were some who had been his closest friends.

Such leadership and such ways of keeping the leader in power are impossible in a free and democratically governed country. The leader of a democracy has great powers so long as he holds his official position. But he holds that position only so long as he is trusted by the people who have placed him there. He cannot become a dictator, or do exactly as he pleases. He leads the nation; he does not drive or force it.

### Britain, the U.S.A., and the Soviet Union

It was just because of this that Neville Chamberlain, who was Prime Minister in Great Britain at the beginning of the war, had to give place to a new Prime Minister in 1940, when Hitler drove the British armies back to Dunkirk. The British people wanted a man who would be a good leader in time of war. They found him in WINSTON CHURCHILL.

Churchill may well be compared to the great Prime Minister of the Seven Years' War against France, William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, of whom we learned in Section 25. He had the same power of choosing the right men as leaders. He had also the power of making people feel that if they went on working bravely and patiently, everything would come out right in the end. As soon as the war in Europe was ended, in 1945, the British elected a new Parliament. The Labour Party (the moderate Socialists) won a majority of the seats, so their leader, CLEMENT ATTLEE became Prime Minister, and formed a new Government. That government did a great deal to repair the damage done by the war, and to get rid of poverty in the British Isles.

It was a lucky thing for the world that, during the war, the



U.S.A. had a President who was as great a leader as Churchill. FRANKLIN DELANO ROOSEVELT had first been elected President in 1932. An American President is elected for a period of four years, and no President had ever remained in office for more than two such periods continuously, that is for a period of eight years all together. But in 1940 the American people elected Roosevelt for the third time, and this was of great help at the most dangerous period of the war, when Hitler was doing his best to bomb Britain into surrender. Though the U.S.A. was not at war with Germany, Roosevelt sent supplies from America to help the British, and lent them American aeroplanes, ships, and machinery. In 1944 Roosevelt was again elected for the



YALTA CONFERENCE

fourth time. By then the U.S.A. was fighting both Germany and Japan. Unhappily Roosevelt did not live to see victory. He died suddenly only three weeks before Germany surrendered.



The great leader of Soviet Russia is JOSEF STALIN,<sup>1</sup> about whom we have already learned something in § 72. Stalin has been the chief leader in Russia since the death of Lenin in 1924. As Churchill was able to make the British people feel that the struggle must go on even when Hitler seemed sure of victory in 1940, so Stalin did the same for his people in 1941 and 1942 when nearly all the richest parts of European Russia were under German control. By moving quickly a great many of the Russian factories to the eastern parts of the Soviet Union, where they were safe from attack by the Germans, Stalin certainly saved his country from defeat in 1941.

In December 1943 there was a meeting of Stalin, Roosevelt and Churchill at Teheran in Iran (Persia). In February 1945 they met again at Yalta in the South of Russia. These meetings were to decide upon plans for working together during the war. But at the Yalta meeting it was also decided that a Conference of all the United Nations should meet at San Francisco in April 1945, to make plans for a League of Nations on better lines than the old one which had failed to prevent war.

Before we end this short history of Man's struggle, let us take a glance at the other countries of the world today, and try to understand some of the problems that have to be faced by men in our own time.

[Key-Question 84: *What happened in Japan, China, and South-East Asia after the war?*]

§ 84. Let us go round the world with the sun, beginning with Japan and China.

### Japan

Japan was till recently under the control of the U.S.A. and the damage caused by the Second World War is being rapidly repaired. The Japanese are a very clever and hard-working people, and they quickly rebuilt their industries, and are trying very hard to sell their goods all over the world again. They can make things more cheaply than the people of western nations can, and this

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<sup>1</sup> He died in 1953.



makes it possible for them to sell their goods more cheaply too. Japan is a small country and is overcrowded and the population is increasing rapidly. One of the greatest problems of Japan (as it is of India) is how to feed the increasing number of people; another problem is where to find room for them to live without sending them to other countries.

## China

In 1945, when the Second World War was ended by the dropping of two atomic bombs on Japan, China was freed from the Japanese. But very soon war broke out again between Chiang Kai-shek's supporters, the Kuo-min-tang, and the Chinese communists. Their ideas about how the country should be governed were too different for them to work together. The communists were determined not to give up their control of those parts of China under their rule, and Chiang was determined to get rid of communism altogether, if he could. He got help in arms and money from the U.S.A. while the communists got from the Russians the war materials captured from the Japanese.

The great leader of the Chinese communists is MAO TSE-TUNG.



MAO TSE-TUNG  
the Second World War, the Communist army joined with

Mao was one of those who worked with Dr Sun Yat-sen, but left the Kuo-min-tang when Chiang Kai-shek became its leader. Mao spent nearly 20 years in work among the peasants in the hilly regions of South-east China, and when Chiang attacked him there, he marched the whole of the communist army right across China to the far north-west, and set up a new communist government there, in a town of caves dug into the hillsides. During



the armies of Chiang Kai-shek to fight the Japanese, but after the defeat of the Japanese, Chiang tried to crush the communists with the help of arms supplied by the U.S.A. Chiang did not succeed because the Chinese people believed that they would be better off under Mao's government than under Chiang's, and Chiang's soldiers therefore began to go over to Mao's side. In 1949 the communists got control of nearly all China, and the People's Republic of China was set up, with Mao Tse-tung as its first President. Chiang fled with the remainder of his army and air force to the island of Formosa. After having suffered from invasions, civil wars, famines and unimaginable misery for nearly 40 years, during which tens of millions of people have died, the people of the greater part of China have peace at last, and are beginning to rebuild their ruined country.

### South-East Asia

China has a larger population than any other country in the world, and the Chinese are one of the oldest civilized peoples. The example of the Chinese therefore has a very powerful effect on others, especially on the other people of eastern and south-eastern Asia.

For centuries most of the other peoples of south-east Asia, *Indo-China*, the *East Indies*, (the Philippine Islands and Indonesia), *Siam* (Thailand), *Malaya*, *Burma*, *Ceylon*, *India* and *Pakistan*, were under the rule of western nations, the French, the Dutch, the Portuguese, the British, and the Americans. All the south-east Asian countries, except Ceylon, India and Pakistan, were for a few years under Japanese rule during the Second World War. When they were freed by the defeat of the Japanese, their people naturally wished to remain independent.

All those people, <sup>including</sup> except those of Malaya, are now independent of western control. A struggle is still going on in parts of Indo-China, and in parts of Malaya. The people of the Philippine Islands have a republic of their own. The people of Indonesia also, after a struggle with the Dutch, have their own republic. Thailand (Siam) is an independent constitutional

*India is now the leading country in Asia*

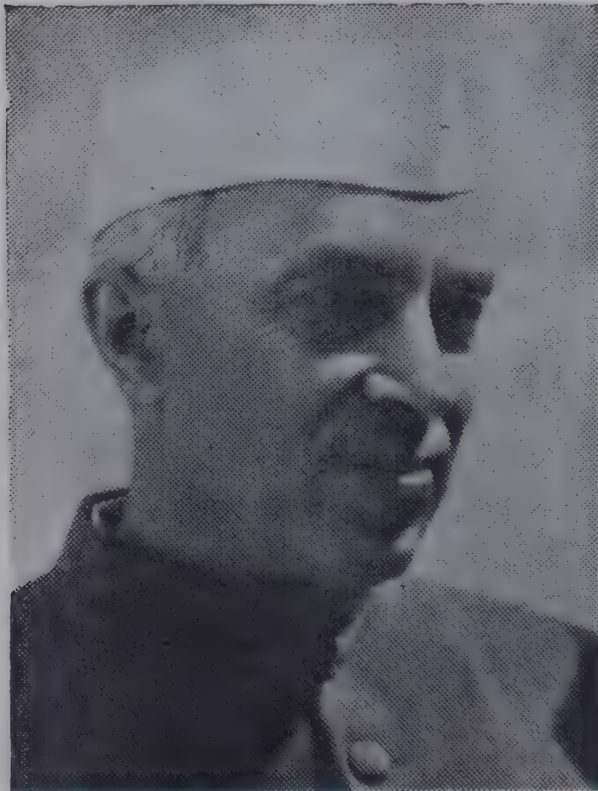


monarchy (see Section 33). The Malay States have been formed into a Union of Malaya under British control. Burma is an independent republic. India, Pakistan and Ceylon are all independent members of the Commonwealth.

[Key-Question 85: *What happened in India after the war, and what is likely to happen?*]

## India

§ 85. For nearly 200 years most of the Indian continent was under the control of the British, and was governed either by Britishers or by Indians chosen or supported by the British Government. *The Indian National Congress*, founded by freedom-loving Englishmen and Indians in 1885, at first aimed at making India a fully self-governing nation within the British Commonwealth. For many years India's great patriots and leaders, such as DADHABHAI NAOROJI, SURENDRANATH BANERJEA, G. K. GOKHALE, B. G. TILAK, ANNIE BESANT, MOTILAL NEHRU, M. K. GANDHI, and others who are still living, fought non-violently for India's freedom from British rule.

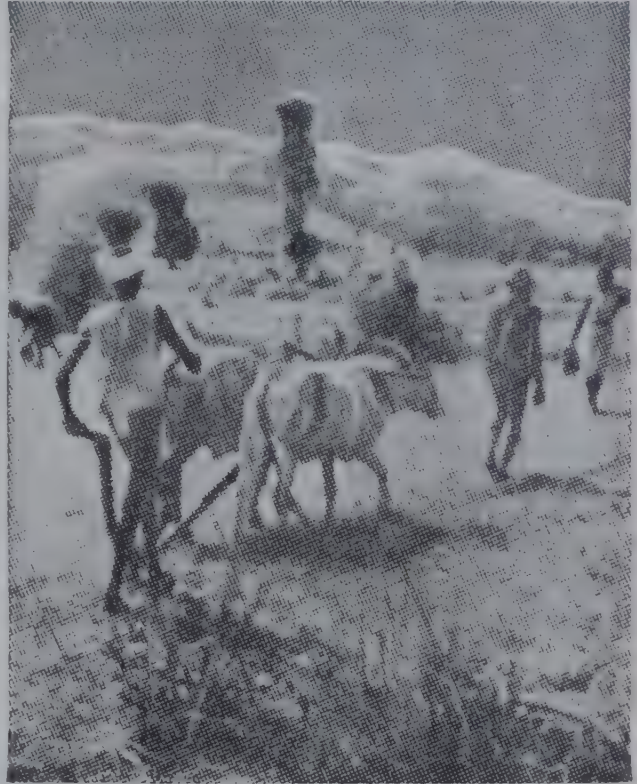


JAWAHARLAL NEHRU

On 15 August 1947 that long struggle ended. For the first time in the world's history a great nation gained freedom from foreign rule by peaceful means. The British, led by Prime Minister ATTLEE, agreed to hand over the Government of India entirely to Indians, and the British Parliament passed the Indian Independence Bill 1947.

Will India become a great industrialized country, with farms cultivated by

means of tractors instead of bullocks and buffaloes, and with factories making every thing of steel and of wonderful materials now being invented? So far as I can judge, India will *have* to industrialize if her people want to live at a higher standard than they do at present. Roads and motor-services and schools and hospitals cost a lot of money if you wish to have them in all parts of the country, and India cannot make all the money necessary for such things if her people go on farming in the present way. Also, when Indian farmers begin to know what American farmers and Russian farmers have been able to do, they will not be satisfied to go on growing one maund of food or cotton in a field which, with the help of science, could be made to grow three or four or ten maunds.



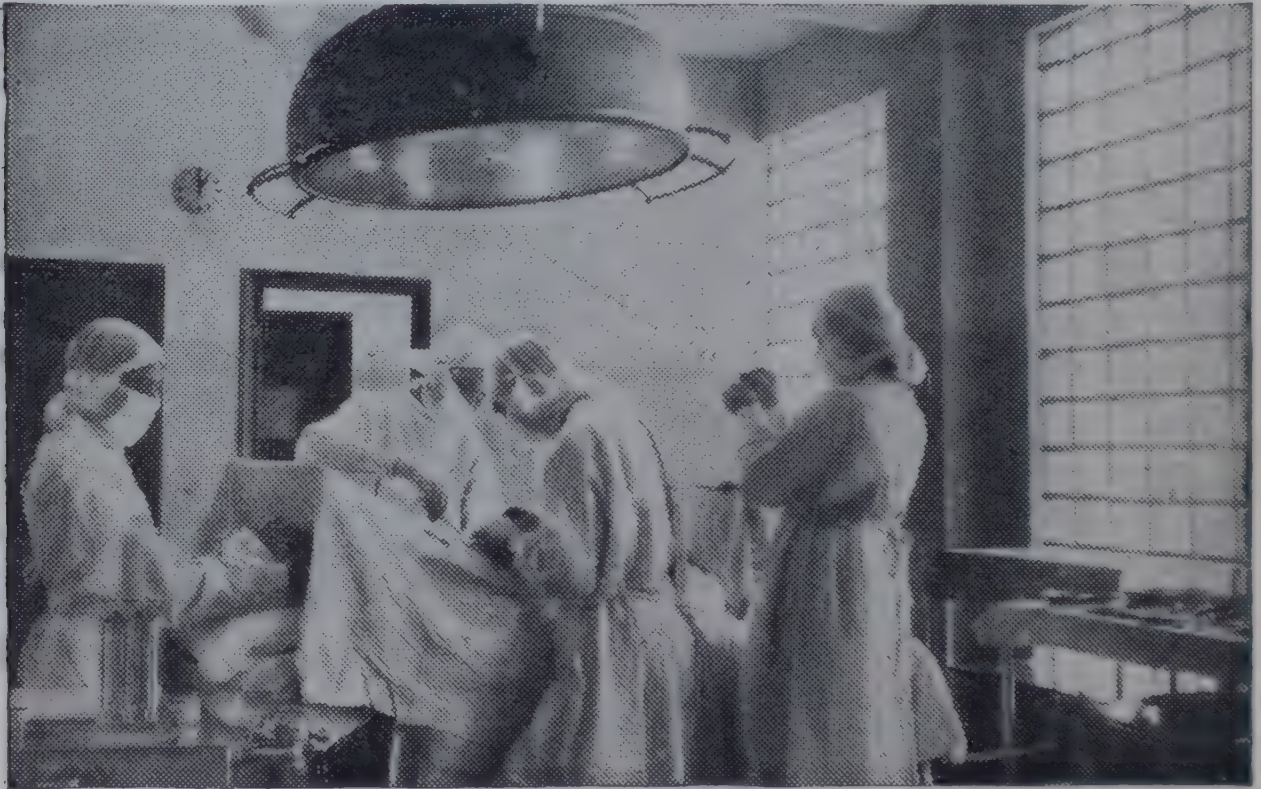
OLD-FASHIONED FARMING  
IN INDIA TODAY

Will India decide to live in her own world, politically; that is, in the matter of government? Will she join up with other countries, or will she prefer to try to stand alone?

More than ever we are living in 'One World'. More than ever we cannot live in a separate little world of our own, even if we wish to do so. Today, in a moment of time no longer than a flash of lighting, messages can be sent from one side of the world to the other, or right round the world, by means of the wonderful invention of the radio. People in Australia can hear the actual words spoken by the British Prime Minister in London. Another wonder, now being perfected, will soon be added to this. We shall be able to see on a screen a moving picture of the person while he is actually speaking. When we speak to each other by telephone, we shall be able to see each other, even



though the other person may be hundreds of miles away. The speed of travel, too, has gradually increased during the last few years. It is possible to fly from India to America in less than three days. There are air-services carrying passengers and mails from Bombay to Calcutta and Madras in a few hours. What is much more important for the Indian villager, we shall soon have good roads leading to every village, and motor-bus services from village to village and to the nearest railway-station. Travel by railway-train will be much cleaner and more comfortable than it



OPERATING THEATRE IN THE TATA MEMORIAL HOSPITAL, BOMBAY

is now. The villager will not be able—and will not wish—to go on living in his own little world.

Education will also help to change the villager of the future. It seems safe to say that within twenty or thirty years from now every child will be in school and most people will be able at least to read and write. Each school will have a library and a radio set, and these will also help to make us live in 'One World' whatever language we may use.

There is not the slightest doubt that, when people know what is going on in other parts of the world, and can go from place to



place so easily to see things for themselves, *they will not be satisfied to go on living as our villagers live now*. It is man's desire for something better which really makes him change. Change which is brought about in any other way—such as by order of a dictator—is not so certain or so lasting in its effect. The Government can help the change to begin, by making good roads, setting up more schools, and so on. But it is the people's desire that will make the changes quick or slow. In thinking of this we must not forget that a hundred years ago a few men were taking just the first steps towards the great changes we are now expecting in our own country. At that time the villagers all over the world were in very much the same condition as the villagers in India now. The towns and cities were as dirty (probably dirtier) than most of the big towns in India now. Railways had only just begun to join the towns. There were no good roads to the villages. There were no government schools (not even primary schools) and no government hospitals. All the great changes, spreading education and improving health, have taken place in the last 80 years. They were just beginning when your grandfather was as old as you are. Imagine, then, what India will be like when your grandson is a boy in school! The changes will be much greater, because things happen much more quickly now than they could happen 80 years ago.

[Key-Question 86: *What are the problems facing Pakistan and Ceylon?*]

## Pakistan

§ 86. The great Mogul emperor, Akbar, tried his best to make India a united nation, and in his time Hindus, Muslims, and people of all religions, began to live together peacefully. In Section 21 we learned what happened when his successors followed a different policy. From that time onwards it has always been difficult to prevent the growth of feelings of jealousy and rivalry between Muslims and Hindus; and when India was under a foreign government there was always a danger that foreigners would 'divide and rule'.

Indians of all religions helped to gain independence for India, and the Republic of India is a 'secular' state, which means that its government does not support or favour any particular religion.



But the Indian National Congress stood for the main principle of democracy, viz.: *government by the free consent of*



M. A. JINNAH

*those governed* (see Section 33). Therefore, when the majority of Indian Muslims led by MOHAMMED ALI JINNAH, President of the Muslim League, demanded the right to have their own separate government for the Muslim-majority part of India (which they called by the name of *Pakistan*), the leaders of the Congress consented to the division of India into two independent countries rather than risk a civil war. In doing this they followed a course unlike that of Abraham

Lincoln who was President of the U.S.A. when the southern states of the Union demanded the right to separate (see Section 31).

As a result of this, the self-governing Dominion of *Pakistan* was created in August 1947, with its capital at Karachi. It consists of the Muslim-majority areas of the western Punjab, Sind, Baluchistan, eastern Bengal, and a few other regions. MR JINNAH became the first Governor-General of Pakistan, and MR LIAQUAT ALI KHAN its first Prime Minister.

Pakistan is fortunate in having some very fertile lands watered by great rivers, and (in the Punjab) by a fine system of canals. In agricultural produce the new Dominion is wealthy, but it has very little mineral wealth, and very few industries at present.

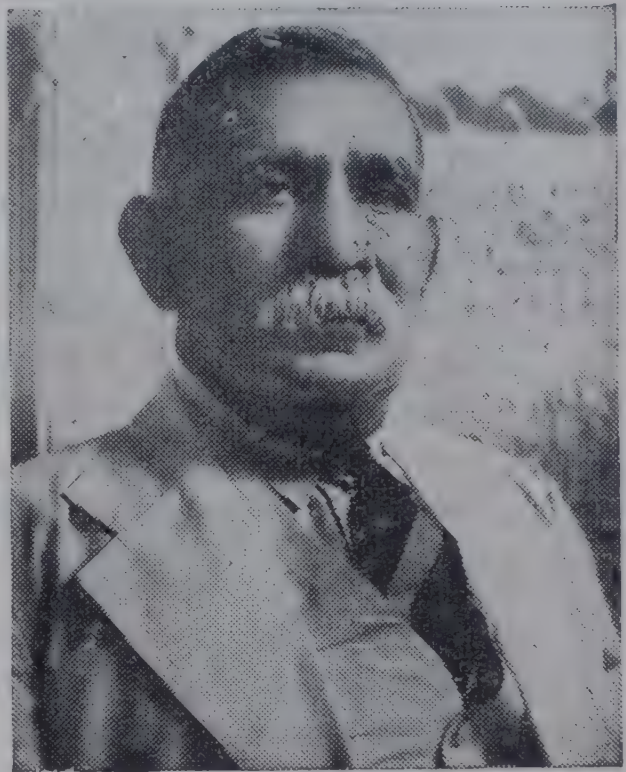
## Ceylon

Under British rule Ceylon was developed rapidly for the cultivation of tea and rubber, for which its hot damp climate is very suitable. It has always been famous for growing spices and coco-

nuts. During the Second World War the protection of Ceylon was very important for the United Nations, for if it had been captured by the Japanese, they would certainly have been able to invade India. Ceylon therefore became one of the great military, naval and air bases of the United Nations.

When the war came to an end, the Ceylonese demanded the right of full self-government, and Ceylon became a Dominion of the Commonwealth on 4 February 1948. Its first Prime Minister was MR D. S. SENANAYAKE.

The biggest problem that Ceylon has to face is the same as India's, namely, that it cannot grow enough food at present to feed its growing population. We learned in Section 4 that the ancient civilization of Ceylon developed in the north and east of the island, where great systems of irrigation were constructed by the skilful engineers of those times. The dams and canals were neglected or destroyed in the many invasions Ceylon has suffered, and land which was producing



D. S. SENANAYAKE

fine crops in ancient times is now covered with jungle. The new government of Ceylon is repairing the dams and canals, getting rid of malaria, and bringing the land under cultivation again.

[Key-Question 87: *What has happened in the Middle East, and what are its dangers?*]

## The Middle East

§ 87. The future of the countries of the Middle East is one of the most difficult problems today. Those countries,—IRAN (Persia), IRAQ (Mesopotamia), the other countries of Arabia,



PALESTINE,<sup>1</sup> SYRIA, TURKEY, and EGYPT, — were the dividing-line between old Asia and new Europe until a few years ago. Now they have become the dividing line between old Europe and new Asia. Civilization had its beginning in those countries. Several civilizations have arisen and died there, during the past 7000 years. Those regions were once the richest part of the earth. They were ruined by invasions, by wars between rival empires, by destruction and famine. They became mostly deserts, where very few people could live.

Now, a new sort of wealth has been discovered by clever men, under the sand of the deserts, — wealth that every modern nation needs for its industries and its transport. That wealth is *OIL*. This may bring new riches to the people of the Middle East: it may also bring them into great danger.

To the north-east, north, and north-west of the Middle East are the parts of the world ruled by Communist governments. Those are China, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the countries of eastern and central Europe.

Westwards and southwards are the parts under American and British control or influence, — the countries of western Europe, North America, South America, Africa and Australia.

The Middle East, situated right between the communist and the non-communist regions of the world, with its oil and other possible mineral wealth, and its small population, is likely to be one of the causes of disputes and rivalry. If men are not wise enough to find a way of preventing those disputes from leading to a Third World War, the world will have to face the greatest dangers ever known. Another World War, in which both sides will use atomic weapons, would certainly destroy our present civilization, and might even completely destroy mankind on the earth. Can such a terrible happening be prevented?

#### EXERCISES

1. In what ways are the leaders of democratic countries different from those of non-democratic countries? Give examples.
2. What has happened in China during the last 50 years (see Sections 46 and 51)?
3. What are the chief problems to be faced in (a) Indo-China (b) India (c) Pakistan and Ceylon (d) the Middle East?

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<sup>1</sup> Since 1948, known as Israel.

## SECTION 52:

## THE FUTURE OF CIVILIZATION

[Key-Question 88: *What is UNO doing to solve the problems of our time?*]

## The United Nations Organization

§ 88. In October 1945 the *United Nations Organization* (UNO) was created. Sixty nations have now joined it, and through its General Assembly and its Security Council it is trying to keep the world at peace. It has helped to stop war between the Jews and the Arabs in Palestine; it is trying to bring about a peaceful solution of the dispute between India and Pakistan, about Kashmir. It is also trying to solve the problem of Korea, and has prevented the war in that country from growing into a Third World War.

Through the world-organization created by UNO, it is helping to solve some of the great problems which concern us all, such as the shortage of food (under FAO — *the Food and Agricultural Organization*), health (under WHO — *the World Health Organization*), education (under UNESCO — *the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*) and conditions of employment (under ILO — *the International Labour Organization*).

It is clear that, if war between the peoples of the world is to be prevented, the *causes* of war must be understood and got rid of. No one really wants war, for it does only harm to all. But when disputes arise between the governments of nations, the leaders on both sides get angry, and angry words are published in the newspapers of their countries, and the people who read those words also become angry. That makes it much more difficult to come to an agreement by discussion between the leaders. So it goes on, like a quarrel between children, until violent words lead to violent actions. Each side blames the other for first being violent, and the friends of each join the fight on one side or the other. It becomes more and more serious, and it is difficult to bring such violence to an end before great damage has been done to many people on both sides. When people get angry they do not stop to think what will be the result of their violence.

4 Egypt & the Arab issue.



Let us now try to understand the chief causes of war, and to see whether it is possible to get rid of them completely, so that the struggle of modern man may cease to be a violent struggle of men against each other, but may be a struggle of each man to find the way to peace in his own heart, and to build up a peaceful civilization.

[Key-Question 89: *Are we becoming more civilized?*]

§ 89. First let us turn back for a moment, to the question we asked in Lesson 1, and see how far we have been able to answer it. The question is: Are the people of today doing the things which will help to make the world (including ourselves) *civilized*?

The four things we mentioned in Lesson 1 were these: *making beautiful things: thinking freely: thinking new things; and keeping the rules for living together.*

I think we shall agree that the world is progressing in *the making of beautiful things*. It is true that we have made many ugly things too, such as crowded factories and dirty cities, but we are beginning to try to get rid of them or to make them cleaner. The use of electricity has helped a lot in this.

The world has also progressed a great deal in *thinking and inventing new things*. Even in time of war, and sometimes even as a result of it, great new inventions have been made. The perfection of the aeroplane has been largely due to the need for using it to carry heavy loads over long distances at the highest possible speed for war. The science of medicine and surgery has also improved wonderfully. By the help of new medicines, wounds are now healed and diseases cured which would have surely been fatal a few years ago. Great improvements, too, have been made in keeping people safe from disease. This has come about because of the need to protect the huge armies from sickness such as typhoid and malaria, from which thousands used to die in former wars.

But in the two other ways to civilization the world has not progressed so much. In *thinking freely* there has been a setback rather than progress during the past ten or fifteen years in many countries of Europe. We have seen in Chapters 20 and 23 how Mussolini

and Hitler kept their own parties in power by getting rid of all those who dared to disagree with them. Only in countries which have a really democratic form of government are people allowed to hold public meetings freely or to publish books and newspapers in which the actions of the Government of the country can be criticized without fear.

Those who support dictatorship say that democracy is not an efficient form of government (see Section 34), and that it is better for people to be ruled by strong leaders who know what is best for the nation. On the other hand, history shows very clearly that when once a leader gets all power into his own hands, he ends by becoming a tyrant and by taking away freedom from others (e.g. Louis XIV, Napoleon, Mussolini, Hitler). Men have yet to discover a method of ruling the world efficiently with the intelligent co-operation of all its citizens, without placing too great power in the hands of a few, and without taking away the right of every man to think and express himself freely. For, *without freedom of thought and expression, the mind of man cannot grow properly and develop fully.*

And in *keeping the rules for living together* the modern nations have almost completely failed. Let us try to understand *why* they have failed to make good rules for living together peacefully, and why they have failed to keep such rules when made.

The first and simplest reason is the one which I mentioned to you in Section 42. Each of the nations wanted to act as Judge in its own case. None was willing to let the League of Nations decide, or to accept the decision of the League if it was not in its favour. And the old League had no power to compel them to accept its decision, as a Judge has power (through the police) to compel a prisoner to accept his judgement. Unless the UNO, the new League planned at San Francisco, decides to exercise this power, it will not be able to stop war.

[Key-Question 90: *Why do nations quarrel? How can their quarrels end?*]

### The Causes of War

§ 90. But let us try to go a little deeper into this. *Why do nations*



*quarrel with other nations?* Why can they not agree to leave each other in peace?

Two of the causes are those we mentioned in Section 38 on 'Imperialism'. The first is when nations are led by men who are ambitious for more power, or who want to take land from other countries to make their own country greater.

The second cause is 'economic necessity', and this is a very very difficult one to get rid of. Please read Section 38 again very carefully and make sure that you understand what 'economic necessity' means. You will see that 'economic necessity' begins to grow when one or more of the following things happen in a country.

1. When the number of people in the country grows larger and larger, more quickly than the country can grow food for them to live on. This is happening in India.

2. When a country which is highly industrialized makes more goods than it can sell in its own markets, and wants to sell them in the markets of other countries. This is the case with England.

3. When a country cannot grow some sorts of raw materials which it needs for its industries, and wants to make sure of getting those materials. This is the case with Japan.

Try to name other countries which are examples of each of these three.

Now let us try to find out, in each of these cases, whether there is any possible way of solving the problem peacefully.

1. *Population increasing more rapidly than food-production.* It is clear that a country in which this happens must do one of the following things: (a) grow more food quickly, (b) Send the people it cannot feed to other countries where there is still enough land for them (this is called 'emigration'), (c) persuade its people not to have so many children (this is called 'birth-control'), (d) help some of its people to start colonies in parts of the world where there is empty land to cultivate (this is called 'colonization').

The British solved their problem mostly by means of (d) during the past 300 years when there were still great empty spaces in North America and Australasia. But there are now hardly any

suitable lands not occupied. The only other way is to make our own land more fertile and grow larger and better crops on every bit of land that can possibly be brought under cultivation. It is still possible to make great improvements by having better irrigation, better cultivation, better seeds, better fertilizers, and by saving every bit of land from being destroyed by floods. The progress of science will certainly help men to do this. This is one of the things that has to be done immediately in India. Otherwise there will be repeated famines.

2. *Making goods to sell in other countries.* (This is called 'export trade'). Why do people want to make more goods than they can use? The reason is that by selling the extra goods, extra money (or 'profit') can be made, and other things can be done with that extra money. This need can be made much less if people are not allowed to make goods for *profit*, but, instead, all goods are made by the Government, and only enough things are made for the people's *use*. This is what has been done in Soviet Russia. But many people in other countries do not wish to give up making goods for profit. They believe that if everything were done by the Government it would make people lazy, and the goods would not be so well made. *Which way is the best for your own country and for the world?* That is one of the important questions which *you* will have to decide when you grow up. Think about it carefully.

3. *Wanting goods which cannot be produced in one's own country.* Scientists can now do such wonderful things that they may be able to solve this problem. For example, rubber will not grow in old countries, but it is possible now to make it anywhere from certain chemicals. A few years ago this was impossible. After some time, it may be possible to make almost any material by chemical methods. It will be possible also to get materials from new plants, and to make plants grow in places where they could not be grown before. Rubber can now be made from plants which grow in very cold climates; sugar is made from beet, as well as from sugar-cane and the juice of palm-trees. Wheat is now grown in lands inside the Arctic circle. Science will do more



and more of these wonders every year.

In giving you the above answers I do not wish to make you think that these are the only possible answers to the three questions, or that the world will at once have peace when these three problems are solved. But the idea I should like to leave with you in coming to the end of this history book is this. When you grow up, *do not let yourself become downhearted because mankind is not able to solve all these problems immediately.* Remember that a million years or more have gone by since Man first stood upright on the ground, and stopped behaving like an animal only. Out of those million years Man has begun to be civilized for only about ten thousand years at the most. Ten thousand years out of one million is the same as one year out of a hundred. So Man is now like a child of less than one year old! He is just beginning to lift up his head and move a few inches along the floor, like a baby learning to use its muscles and limbs. After some time, he will stand up and try to walk. He will fall many times, but in the end he is certain to be able to walk, for he will learn balance, through trying over and over again to save himself from falling.

It is just the same with Man's struggle to be civilized. The struggle has only just begun, and in this book I have told you only about *the first few minutes of the struggle.* In the five hundred years since A.D. 1450 man has really done many remarkable things. It is as if our baby of one year old had suddenly got up on his feet and, with a great effort had made several stumbling steps. Is it surprising that he falls down after that? But he will get up and try again. And presently he will walk without falling.

[Key-Question 91: *How can we help to bring peace and happiness to the world?*]

### The World Problem is the individual problem

§ 91. Man has a wonderful brain, and he is learning to use it more and more. But why have all the wonderful inventions and discoveries of Man's brain *not* made us happier and more peaceful?

The people who lived in Egypt and India and China in ancient times, had to get on without a great many things we have today.

They could not travel quickly from place to place; very few of them could read or write; there were very few books, and no cinemas, radios, and other entertainments of that sort. Except for the discoveries which have helped to get rid of disease, most of Man's inventions seem to have made life more dangerous and less happy, not more peaceful and happier. Why is it so?

It is because *the knowledge we have gained has given us more POWER but not more WISDOM to use that power for good*. Many of the wonderful new inventions have been used for war and destruction. Others are used to make things quickly and in large quantities so that some men can become very rich, and others have no work to do. *Why do men behave selfishly*, thinking only of power and wealth, and safety for themselves and their families, not really caring much about the fate of others?

This is the greatest of all problems. It is the problem to which all the great religious teachers have tried to find the answer. Unless we can find the answer ourselves, you and I and each one of us, all the other problems of the world will continue unsolved, and the struggle of Man will go on. There will be wars, so long as men want power over others; there will be poverty so long as men want riches, which give them power. Even if scientists discover how to provide enough food and clothing for all, and even if a strong government gets it distributed fairly, so long as there are men and women who are greedy and want to rule others through the possession of more things or more knowledge, *there will not be peace and happiness*.

*'The world problem is the individual problem.'*

This means that unless there is a change in *ourselves*,—in you and me and each one of us,—the world will not change. So long as we have greed in our hearts, we are helping to make the world greedy and cruel. Blaming others and expecting *them* to change is of no use. Even blaming ourselves, telling ourselves that greed is a horrible thing and that it is wicked to be greedy, will not put an *end* to greed. Then how can there be an end to it and to all the other sufferings of the world?



We can be free from greed and other such feelings only by watching them fearlessly and understanding what causes them,—*not* by running away from them and trying to escape, as an ostrich runs away and buries its head in the sand to escape seeing what it fears!

It is the power of Man's mind that has discovered so many secrets of Nature. We have studied many of those wonderful discoveries and inventions, in this book. But we have not yet discovered the secret of our *own* nature. The wise men of ancient India and China said that the most important thing in the world is self-knowledge. '*Man, know thyself,*' said the Greek oracle.<sup>1</sup> We know many many other things, but not that! Our mind makes us think that each one of us is a separate being, because we have bodies which appear separate (though the matter of which they are made is constantly inter-changing). But there is only one Life in the universe. We are separate only in appearance. Our minds cannot understand that this appearance of separateness is not a real thing. Therefore our thoughts and actions are always based on misunderstanding. '*What a man thinks, that he becomes,*' said Buddha. We think of our self as separate, and we become selfish. Then we want more for ourselves, not caring if others have less.

All quarrels and fights and unhappiness come from this. They will end only when our minds see this truth clearly; for when we see clearly, we cannot help thinking differently and acting differently. '*The Truth shall make us free.*' In *that* freedom the struggle of Man will cease, and his real life will begin.

#### EXERCISES

1. How can the problems of 'economic necessity' be solved?
2. In what ways will the life of the Indian villager be changed in the coming 50 years, and why?
3. How can World Peace be secured?

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<sup>1</sup> A voice which spoke through a priestess of Apollo in the temple of Delphi, in ancient Greece.

# Glossary

In this glossary simple explanations are given of words in this book not included in the list of 1500 words on which the publishers have based several of their well-known series of English books for use in schools.

*able (adj.)* : having skill or ability.

*absolute (adj.)* : complete ; unlimited.

*adventure (n.)* : exciting experience.

*agitation (n.)* : excited condition of mind ; attempt to excite people's minds.

*ahead (adv.)* : in front ; in advance.

*ally (n.)* : pronounced 'al-eye' rhyming with 'shall I' : person or State joined to another as helper.

*ambassador (n.)* : official sent to represent his nation's Government in a foreign country.

*ambition (n.)* : strong desire to do something well.

*anatomy (n.)* : the science of the parts of the body and how they are fitted together.

*ancestor (n.)* : any member of one's family who lived before one's father or mother.

*ancient (adj.)* : very old.

*anti-(prefix)* : against ; opposed to (as in anti-septic).

*argue (v.)* : to prove by argument ; to discuss.

*armour (n.)* : metal coat or covering for protecting the body.

*arrest (v.)* : stop ; hold as a prisoner.

*artery (n.)* : small tube of the body, carrying blood from the heart.

*article (n.)* : thing.

*ascent (n.)* : going up.

*assassin (n.)* : murderer.

*assist (v.)* : help.

*atlas (n.)* : book of maps.

*atom (n.)* : the smallest unit of an element, a very small part of the substance of which the earth is made.

*attach (v.)* : fix on ; join.

*axis (n.)* : the line on which an object turns when going round itself.

*balcony (n.)* : part of the building which sticks out from the main walls and usually has a railing.

*behead (v.)* : cut off the head.

*besiege (v.)* : attack and surround on all sides.

*boundary (n.)* : line marking the limit or extent.

*budget (n.)* : statement of income (money to be received) and expenditure (money to be paid).

*calm (adj.)* : peaceful.

*candidate (n.)* : one who offers himself for a position or an examination.

*cannon (n.)* : great gun.

*adj.*—adjective. *adv.*—adverb. *c.*—conjunction. *n.*—noun.

*prep.*—preposition. *pron.*—pronoun. *v.*—verb.



- captive* (n.) : one who is captured, made a prisoner.
- capture* (v.) : take by force, make a prisoner.
- carve* (v.) : cut into pieces (usually of beautiful shape).
- caste* (n.) : a social class or group of people in Hindu society.
- catholic* (adj.) : belonging to the whole world.
- ceiling* (n.) : inside roof of a building, usually of wood or cloth.
- celebrate* (v.) : make a splendid show in public.
- chain* (n.) : line of joined things; iron rings for tying things or persons firmly.
- character* (n.) : (1) qualities of a person or thing. (2) person in a story or play.
- chemical* (n.) : substance made by the help of chemistry.
- chemical* (adj.) : belonging to chemistry.
- chemistry* (n.) : the science of substances and their qualities.
- chill* (n.) : condition of being cold; sickness caused by cold.
- chimney* (n.) : tall pipe through which smoke is carried out of a building.
- circulate* (v.) : send round.
- citizen* (n.) : person who has full rights as a member of a city or a nation.
- civilize* (v.) : bring up to a high level of behaviour.
- civil war* : war between people belonging to the same country.
- clash* (n.) : violent meeting of opposing persons or things; small fight.
- colonist* (n.) : one who lives in a colony.
- colony* (n.) : group or society of people living together.
- companion* (n.) : member of the same company or party.
- compete* (v.) : try to do better than others.
- competition* (n.) : trying to do better than others.
- confuse* (v.) : put into disorder.
- conquer* (v.) : take by force or in war.
- consent* (v.) : agree to.
- constitution* (n.) : regular system ; working according to laws.
- control* (n.) : authority, management.
- control* (v.) : bring or keep under authority, discipline.
- convert* (v.) : make a change.
- corpuscle* (n.) : very very small living things.
- costly* (adj.) : costing much money.
- craft* (n.) : hand-work.
- crawl* (v.) : go on hands and knees or with bent body; go slowly.
- create* (v.) : bring into existence, make.
- cricket-pitch* (n.) : the level ground on which the game of cricket is played, the distance between the stumps being 22 yards.
- crime* (n.) : act for which there is a serious punishment.
- criticize* (v.) : judge ; point out the mistake of.
- crown* (v.) : put on the king's head-dress as a sign of being the ruler.
- crush* (v.) : break by force.
- culture* (n.) : high development of mind (through studies, arts, crafts, etc.).
- dairy* (n.) : place from which milk is supplied.
- dairymaid* (n.) : girl who milks cows or works in a dairy.

*damage* (v.) : do harm to.

*debt* (pronounced 'det') (n.) : payments which one has to make to another and has not made.

*decay* (v.) : go bad ; become rotten ; fall to pieces.

*deceive* (v.) : give a false idea.

*defeat* (v.) : conquer ; overcome.

*defy* (v.) : oppose openly.

*dependent* (adj.) : supported by another.

*descendant* (n.) : a son or daughter or later members of one's own family.

*detach* (v.) : take off ; make separate.

*determine* (v.) : decide, make up one's mind.

*develop* (v.) : grow ; make better or bigger.

*diagram* (n.) : a drawing to explain something.

*disappoint* (v.) : make sad at not getting what is hoped for.

*disaster* (n.) : great and sudden trouble.

*disciple* (n.) : one who takes another as his teacher or leader.

*discipline* (n.) : training which produces self-control.

*discuss* (v.) : debate, reason about.

*dispute* (n.) : quarrel.

*distant* (adj.) : far off.

*disturb* (v.) : upset ; cause trouble to.

*down-hearted* (adj.) : sad.

*duty* (n.) : that which one ought to do ; that which one is responsible for doing.

*dye* (n.) : substance used for colouring.

*dye* (v.) : make coloured.

*eager* (adj.) : very willing ; full of desire.'

*earn* (v.) : get as reward or payment for work.

*efficient* (adj.) : working well.

*eloquence* (pronounced 'el-oh-kwence') (n.) : the power of making fine public speeches.

*encourage* (v.) : give courage to ; help.

*entertainment* (n.) : performance to amuse people.

*equip* (v.) : make ready with necessary things.

*estate* (n.) : great amount of land or property owned by one person or company.

*estuary* (n.) : wide mouth of a river where it enters the sea.

*evidence* (n.) : proof.

*exile* (n.) : one who is sent away from his country as a punishment.

*expand* (v.) : increase in size, become larger.

*experiment* (n.) : attempt to do something new.

*expert* (n.) : very skilful.

*extend* (v.) : make wider or longer.

*factor* (n.) : one of the causes helping to produce a result.

*faint* (adj.) : not clear.

*false* (adj.) : not true.



- famine* (n.) : starvation ; great shortage of food.
- favour* (n.) : kind feeling ; act of showing approval.
- feast* (n.) : joyful gathering to eat food together.
- feudal* (pronounced 'few-dul') (adj.) : belonging to the time when the owners of land gained protection from bigger owners by giving them military service or payment instead of such service.
- fibre* (n.) : material which has threads that can be twisted to make yarn, such as cotton, wool, silk, jute.
- final* (adj.) : last.
- fine* (v.) : take money as a punishment.
- flange* (n.) : flat edge projecting from a wheel for keeping it in position on rails.
- fleet* (n.) : number or group of ships.
- float* (v.) : support or move on water or in air.
- forefathers* (n.) : members of one's family who lived before one's father.
- foreign* (adj.) : belonging to another nation or country.
- fort* (n.) : place made strong for protection against attack by enemies.
- found* (v.) : make the beginning of.
- foundation* (n.) : the beginning (usually of a building or society) ; the lowest part of a building.
- freeze* (v.) : make into ice.
- frozen* (adj.) : made into ice.
- generous* (adj.) : kind-hearted ; giving freely.
- genius* (n.) : (1) great power of doing something well. (2) person possessing such power.
- goal* (n.) : place aimed at, or desired to reach.
- goodwill* (n.) : kind feeling.
- grant* (v.) : give what is asked for.
- greedy* (adj.) : wanting too much for oneself.
- group* (n.) : number of persons or things near together.
- guilty* (adj.) : having done wrong.
- haste* (n.) : quick action.
- headquarters* (n.) : chief place of management or residence.
- hobbies* (n.) : arts or handicrafts done for pleasure and not to earn a living.
- hollow* (adj.) : having space inside it.
- horizontal* (adj.) : flat ; parallel to the level surface of the earth.
- huge* (adj.) : very great.
- ignorant* (adj.) : not educated ; not wise.
- immortal* (adj.) : not mortal ; not able to be killed or to die.
- increase* (v.) : grow greater.
- industrialize* (v.) : develop industries ; grow or make things in large quantities with the help of machines.
- inland* (adj.) : away from the coast of a country.
- inlet* (n.) : small arm of the sea.
- instrument* (n.) : tool ; thing by which one does work.
- interfere* (v.) : get in the way ; try to stop or upset.

- interior* (n. and adj.) : inside ; far from the coast.  
*interval* (n.) : space or time between two objects or events.  
*invade* (v.) : attack with force.  
*invent* (v.) : discover how to make.  
*inventive* (adj.) : clever in discovering how to make things.  
*irrigate* (v.) : water the fields.  
*ivory* (n.) : the material of the teeth of elephants and other animals.  
*jailer* (n.) : officer in charge of a jail or prison.  
*jealous* (adj.) : feeling angry at the better position or happiness of another.  
*jewel* (n.) : precious stone.  
*job* (n.) : bit of work.  
*just* (adj.) : fair ; right.  
*kidnap* (v.) : take away a person by force, against the law.  
*labour* (n. and v.) : work.  
*legal* (adj.) : of law ; according to the law.  
*leisure* (n.) : time free from work.  
*liquid* (n.) : a watery material.  
*literary* (adj.) : learned through books ; concerning books.  
*loom* (n.) : machine for weaving.  
*luxury* (n.) : things or conditions giving great pleasure and comfort to the body.  
*magnet* (n.) : object having the power to draw other objects towards it.  
*mainland* (n.) : chief part of the land, not counting the islands round it.  
*malaria* (n.) : fever caused by the bite of a mosquito.  
*manufacture* (v.) : make articles for use (out of raw materials).  
*marble* (n.) : beautiful stone used for costly building or for statues.  
*margin* (n.) : border.  
*mariner* (n.) : sailor or seaman.  
*mate* (n.) : ship's officer below the captain in authority.  
*meanwhile* (adv.) : in the time between.  
*mechanical* (adj.) : for machines ; of machinery.  
*memorize* (v.) : keep fixed in the memory ; remember.  
*microscope* (n.) : instrument by which one can see very small objects.  
*military* (adj.) : for the army or war on land.  
*mine* (n.) : deep hole made in the earth to get coal, metals, precious stones, etc.  
*minister* (n.) : person at the head of a department of government.  
*mischief* (n.) : small wrongdoing ; tricks causing trouble to others.  
*missionary* (n.) : person whose work is to convert others to his own religion.  
*mosquito* (n.) : small fly causing malaria fever.  
*movable types* : separate letters of the alphabet cut in wood or metal, so that they can be put together to make any word.  
*murder* (v.) : kill in anger or hate.  
*mystery* (n.) : something secret or unexplained.  
*native* (adj.) : belonging by birth to a place.  
*naturally* (adv.) : by nature ; according to nature.  
*necessity* (n.) : need ; condition of needing.



*needle* (n.) : small pointed piece of steel used for sewing.

*negro* (n.) : black-skinned African man.

*neighbour* (n.) : one who lives near.

*nicknamed* (adj.) : named for fun.

*noble* (adj.) : from a high family ; worthy of persons belonging to a high family.

*nomad* (n.) : wanderer ; one who does not live in one place as a settler, but who goes from place to place in search of food.

*object* (pronounced 'ob-ject') (v.) : express dislike or disapproval.

*occupation* (n.) : work which takes up most of one's time.

*occupy* (v.) : live in.

*operation* (n.) : way of doing ; cutting of the body in order to help to cure a disease or injury.

*orator* (n.) : one who is skilled in public speaking.

*order* (n.) : (1) command. (2) discipline.

*orderly* (adj.) : regular ; quiet.

*organize* (v.) : put into working order ; make a system for working.

*orthodox* (adj.) : holding the usual opinions.

*otherwise* (adv.) : if it were not so.

*outlet* (n.) : opening or passage to get out.

*overcome* (v.) : get the better of ; conquer.

*overthrow* (v.) : put an end to.

*paddle* (n.) : wooden instrument for striking the water in order to make a boat move.

*palace* (n.) : house of a king or ruler.

*patron-saint* (n.) : the holy man by whose name a person is called.

*percentage* (n.) : so much for each hundred.

*period* (n.) : part of time.

*permanent* (adj.) : unchanging ; going on always.

*permit* (v.) : allow.

*persuade* (v.) : make a person willing.

*pilot* (n.) : one who guides a ship or aeroplane.

*pioneer* (n.) : one who goes in front to clear the way ; one who takes the lead in doing a new thing.

*pivot* (n.) : centre pin on which a wheel turns.

*plague* (n.) : a very bad sickness caused by dirt.

*planet* (n.) : world which moves round the sun like our own world.

*plank* (n.) : flat piece of wood.

*platform* (n.) : raised part of the floor of a room or of a railway-station.

*plentiful* (adj.) : in great quantity.

*plot* (v.) : make a secret plan.

*poison* (n.) : substance which may cause death if it is taken into a living body.

*polar* (adj.) : of or near the north or south pole of a globe or of the earth.

*politics* (n.) : the art of government.

*portrait* (n.) : picture of a person.

*present* (n.) : gift.

- priest* (n.) : leader in religion ; head of a church.
- problem* (n.) : difficult question to answer.
- produce* (v.) : grow or make something.
- product* (n.) : something grown or made.
- production* (n.) : growing or making of something.
- profession* (n.) : way of earning a living.
- profit* (n.) : something extra (usually money) gained.
- progressive* (adj.) : aiming at progress, moving forward.
- promote* (v.) : give a higher position to.
- propeller* (n.) : piece of machinery which, by turning rapidly in water or air, makes a boat or aeroplane move.
- prosper* (v.) : get on well.
- protest* (v.) : speak against.
- province* (n.) : large part or division of a country.
- publish* (v.) : put before the public ; print for public use.
- puzzle* (n.) : problem which is difficult to solve.
- quarrel* (n.) : angry exchange of words or blows.
- queue* (pronounced 'kew', rhyming with 'new') (n.) : line of people standing one behind another.
- quinine* (n.) : medicine for curing malaria fever.
- race* (n.) : (1) competition in running or in doing something quickly. (2) large group of people originally from the same family.
- raid* (n.) : sudden surprising attack.
- ransom* (n.) : payment made in exchange for setting a prisoner free.
- rare* (adj.) : precious ; not often found.
- rebel* (pronounced 're-bél') (v.) : fight against the Government or those in authority.
- rebel* (pronounced 'réb-el') (n.) : one who fights against the Government or those in authority.
- rebellion* (n.) : fighting against the Government.
- refrigerator* (n.) : machine for keeping things very cold.
- region* (n.) : part (of a country or body).
- relative* (n.) : one who is related by birth, a member of one's family.
- release* (v.) : set free.
- remarkable* (adj.) : worthy to be noted or spoken about.
- representative* (n.) : one chosen to act on behalf of others.
- reproduce* (v.) : make again, produce a thing of the same sort.
- resign* (v.) : give up a position or office.
- resist* (v.) : keep off an attack ; not give way to.
- responsible* (adj.) : trusted ; able to be trusted.
- restore* (v.) : put back ; give back.
- revenge* (v.) : do harm to a person in return for harm he has done to you.
- revive* (v.) : bring back to life.
- rid* (v.) : free.
- right* (n.) : that which a person can have or ought to have according to law or justice.



- risk* (n.) : danger.  
*risk* (v.) : put in danger.  
*rival* (n.) : one who tries to be better or stronger than another.  
*rivalry* (n.) : trying to be better or stronger than another.  
*rob* (v.) : take wrongfully the property of another person.  
*robber* (n.) : one who robs.  
*robbery* (n.) : act of robbing.  
*roller* (n.) : piece of wood or metal shaped like a cylinder.  
*row* (pronounced 'roh') (n.) : long line of objects or persons.  
*row* (pronounced 'roh') (v.) : make a boat move by oars.  
*row* (pronounced to rhyme with 'cow') (n.) : disturbance, great noise.  
*savage* (adj.) : cruel; violent; uncivilized.  
*scene* (n.) : (1) what one sees. (2) painted cloth used in a theatre for giving the appearance of a real place.  
*scholar* (n.) : student; one who studies deeply.  
*severe* (adj.) : hard; not gentle.  
*shallow* (adj.) : not deep.  
*shelter* (n.) : that which shields or protects.  
*shelter* (v.) : to cover or shield.  
*shock* (n.) : hard blow causing surprise or hurt.  
*similar* (adj.) : like.  
*skill* (n.) : cleverness; ability.  
*slave* (n.) : person who is another's property or is used as a possession and not paid for his work.  
*slum* (v.) : group of dirty huts or badly kept houses in a town.  
*smallpox* (n.) : very bad disease.  
*solar system* (n.) : the sun with the planets and comets which circle round it.  
*solution* (n.) : answer to a problem.  
*solve* (v.) : find out an answer.  
*sort* (n.) : group; kind.  
*source* (pronounced to rhyme with 'horse') (n) : beginning.  
*spice* (n.) : plant used to give a taste in food.  
*spin* (v.) : make thread by twisting fibre.  
*spindle* (n.) : thin piece of wood on which yarn is wound.  
*spray* (n.) : very small drops of liquid which look like smoke.  
*stage* (n.) : raised part of a room or theatre where the speakers or actors stand.  
*starve* (v.) : cause to die for want of food.  
*statue* (n.) : model of a person in clay, stone or metal.  
*store* (n.) : (1) a quantity gathered; (2) a shop with many departments.  
*store* (v.) : to gather in quantities; to lay up; hoard.  
*strait* (n.) : narrow natural passage joining two seas.  
*struggle* (n.) : strong effort against difficulties.  
*stumble* (v.) : almost fall down.  
*subject* (n.) : (1) person under a ruler. (2) matter discussed.  
*substance* (n.) : material.  
*suckle* (v.) : to nurse at the breast.

- suffer* (v.) : to undergo ; to endure ; to feel pain.
- supply* (n.) : things needed.
- supply* (v.) : give things needed.
- surprise* (n.) : wonder, amazement.
- surprise* (v.) : cause to wonder, amaze.
- surrender* (v.) : stop fighting and give oneself up to the enemy.
- survey* (v.) : carefully look at ; measure and make a map of.
- swing* (v.) : move freely backwards and forwards when hanging.
- system* (n.) : regular way of working ; plan.
- tame* (adj.) : not wild ; gentle.
- task* (n.) : difficult work.
- tax* (n.) : payment to be made to the Government.
- telescope* (n.) : instrument for seeing objects at a great distance.
- temple* (n.) : building where a worship is carried on.
- terrific* (adj.) : causing great fear.
- theatricals* (n.) : dramas or plays acted in a theatre.
- theory* (n.) : statement of ideas about something.
- thread* (n.) : long thin piece of material, usually of cotton or some other fibre.
- threaten* (v.) : say that one will do harm to another.
- throne* (n.) : special seat of a king or ruler.
- tolerate* (v.) : allow to do freely.
- tool* (n.) : instrument made for helping the hands to do work.
- torture* (n.) : give great pain purposely.
- traitor* (n.) : one who works against his own people or nation.
- transmit* (v.) : send out.
- transport* (pronounced 'tránsport') (v.) : carry goods or persons from one place to another ; means of carrying goods or persons.
- transport* (pronounced 'tránsport') (v.) : carry goods or persons from one place to another.
- treasure* (n.) : store of gold and other valuable things.
- treat* (v.) : behave towards ; do an action to.
- tribe* (n.) : a group of families, under a chief.
- tributary* (n.) : small river which flows into a greater one.
- trick* (n.) : action intended to deceive or mislead a person.
- tropical* (adj.) : belonging to the hot parts of the world, the parts between the tropics.
- truck* (n.) : wheeled cart for transport.
- tyrant* (n.) : ruler who behaves cruelly and does whatever he pleases.
- tyranny* (n.) : behaviour of a tyrant.
- unconscious* (adj.) : not having knowledge of ; not awake.
- unfortunate* (adj.) : unlucky, having bad luck.
- unlimited* (adj.) : having no limit.
- unselfish* (adj.) : not thinking of oneself.
- vaccination* (n.) : the method of preventing smallpox discovered by Jenner.
- valuable* (adj.) : having great value ; precious.
- vein* (n.) : small tube in the body carrying blood back to the heart.



*vertical* (*adj.*) : upright ; at right angles to the level surface of the earth.

*vessel* (*n.*) : thing made of clay, wood or metal, to hold liquids or to float on them.

*vice versa* (pronounced 'vy-see ver-sah') (*adv.*) : the other way round.

*violent* (pronounced 'vi-o-lent' not 'voil-ent') (*adj.*) : using great force.

*wage* (*n.*) : payment for work.

*weapon* (pronounced 'wep'n') (*n.*) : tool or instrument for war.

*weave* (*v.*) : make cloth by putting threads over and under each other.

*weed* (*n.*) : useless plant.

*whip* (pronounced 'wip') (*n.*) : stick with a piece of rope fastened to it for giving blows.

*worship* (pronounced 'wérship') : (1) (*v.*) : show respect to God.

(2) (*n.*) : way of showing respect to God.

*wreck* (pronounced 'reck') (*v.*) : completely destroy.

*yarn* (*n.*) : twisted threads of fibre, such as cotton, wool or silk.







ಗ್ರಂಥಾಲಯ  
ಕನ್ನಡ ವಿಶ್ವವಿದ್ಯಾಲಯ - ಹಂಪಿ  
ವಿದ್ಯಾರಣ್ಯ

ವರ್ಗೀಕರಣ ಸಂಖ್ಯೆ :

ಪರಿಗ್ರಹಣ ಸಂಖ್ಯೆ :

